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ABSTRACT

This report focuses on how assistance can best support Namibia's efforts to plan and institute new policies and practices to further its educational system. Namibia is working to restructure its educational system rapidly following its gaining independence in 1990. National Education Goals established in the country's constitution include the right to free education for all, compulsory-education requirements, and the right to maintain private schools and colleges. Three broad goals have been identified for Namibia's educational system: unify existing separate ethnic education authorities into one system, make education as uniform as possible, and make education as universal as possible. The plans for fulfilling these education goals are reviewed in nine chapters: (1) Goals and Plans; (2) History, Structure and Basic Data; (3) Equity and Efficiency Dimensions in Namibian Education; (4) Addressing Equity and Efficiency Issues; (5) Issues in Curriculum and Instructional Effectiveness; (6) Capacities for Planning and Management of Education; (7) The Resource Base for Education; (8) Non-Governmental Support for Education; and (9) "Summary Findings. The report comments on problems with the existing educational system and how to address them, priorities for resource allocation, strengthening system capacities, and policy issues. The appendixes include a numerical comparison between the existing and proposed organizations, a description of non-governmental organizations' activities in education, and a map of Namibia. (Contains 51 references.) (JPT)

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NAMIBIA

BASIC EDUCATION IN NAMIBIA

SECTOR REVIEW REPORT

December 1990

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
CULTURE, YOUTH AND SPORTS

GOVERNMENT OF NAMIBIA
WINDHOEK, NAMIBIA

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PREFACE

This report is the first step in the development of USAID's sector assistance strategy for Namibia. The task of the Sector Review Team was to identify those activities that would allow USAID to assist the Government of Namibia in increasing access, improving quality, and enhancing efficiency in the basic education sector. The technical team recruited by USAID's Africa Bureau included:

David R. Evans, Center for International Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst

Sue Grant Lewis, USAID, Africa Bureau, Washington, D.C.

Frank Method, USAID, Program and Policy Coordination Bureau, Washington, D.C. (Study Team Leader)

Robert M. Morgan, Learning Systems Institute, Florida State University, Tallahassee

Julie Rea, USAID, Africa Bureau, Washington, D.C.

Douglas M. Windham, School of Education and School of Public Policy, State University of New York, Albany

The technical team was joined in Namibia by **Moses !Omeb**, Director of English Language Services, Council of Churches in Namibia.

The majority of the team arrived in Namibia on Sunday, November 25, 1990. Meetings with the Minister of Education, Culture, Sports and Youth and key Ministry personnel were held on November 26 and 27. Between November 28 and 30 the team visited educational offices, schools, teacher training institutes, vocational centers, and teacher centers in the Northern regions of Owambo, Kavango, and Caprivi. The weekend of December 1 - 2 was spent reviewing findings, identifying data needs, and revising the chapter outlines for the final report.

Educational visits continued on December 3 and 4, with team members visiting Okahandja and Rehoboth, as well as Windhoek and its immediate environs. Meetings with Ministry of Education officials also continued over this time. Beginning Wednesday, December 5, the team began the initial drafting of chapters and this continued through Friday, December 7. Visits to NGOs and other agencies concerned with educational development also occurred during this period.

The initial drafts were reviewed on Saturday, December 8, and revised drafts were prepared for full team review by Tuesday, December 11. The team was joined Saturday, December 8, by **Richard Shortlidge**, the USAID Mission Director for Namibia. On Monday, December 10, Shortlidge and a subgroup of team members visited Swakopmund.

On Tuesday, December 11, Shortlidge, Method, and Rea participated in a meeting of major donors and NGOs convened by the Ministry of Education and the Planning Com-

mission to review donor plans in the education sector. A related meeting to discuss donor coordination was convened by UNDP.

A full review of drafts occurred on December 11, as well as preparation of a briefing statement for meetings with the Minister of Education and the U. S. Ambassador. These briefings were held on Wednesday morning, December 12. Following these meetings the Team Leader worked with individual chapter authors to prepare the final draft version.

From December 14 to January 14, 1991, the personnel of the Ministry of Education reviewed the draft to identify any errors of fact, possible misunderstandings or misinterpretations, and areas of disagreement. On January 14, Richard Shortlidge met with the Minister of Education and his senior staff to finalize the document. It is hoped that this Sector Review will provide an informed, balanced, and insightful foundation for discussions leading to extended cooperation in the education sector between the United States of America and the Government of Namibia.

GLOSSARY

BOLESWA	Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland
CCN	Council of Churches in Namibia
DAS	Department of Auxiliary Services
DNE	Department of National Education
ECP	Education Certificate, Primary
EEC	European Economic Community
ESL	English as a Second Language
FY	Fiscal Year
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	Gross National Product
GRN	Government of the Republic of Namibia
IDA	International Development Association
IGCSE	International General Certificate of Secondary Education
IMF	International Monetary Fund
ISD	Instructional Systems Design
MOE	Ministry of Education (short form of MOECYS)
MOECYS	Ministry of Education, Culture, Youth and Sport
MOF	Ministry of Finance
MPW	Ministry of Public Works, Transportation and Communication
NAA	National Assessment Authority
NALAE	Namibian Association for Literacy and Adult Education
NANSO	Namibian National Students Organization
NANTU	Namibian National Teachers Union
NEC	National Education Certificate
NGO	Non-governmental Organization
NHEC	National Higher Education Certificate
NIED	National Institute for Education Development
NLP	Namibia Literacy Program
NPTP	Namibia Primary Teachers Project
ODA	Overseas Development Agency (UK)
PACT	Private Agencies Collaborating Together
PPS	People's Primary School
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SADCC	Southern Africa Development Coordination Conference
SIDA	Swedish International Development Authority
SWAPO	South-West African People's Organization
TUCSIN	The University Center for Study of Namibia
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
Unesco	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization
Unicef	United Nations Children's Fund
USAID	U.S. Agency for International Development
WUSD	World University Service Denmark
ZINTEC	Zimbabwe Integrated National Teacher Education Corps

CHAPTER ONE

GOALS AND PLANS

THE MANDATE FOR 1991

Namibia reached independence in March 1990 with two non-negotiable, immutable realities. First, there were high expectations (and some apprehension) for rapid, fundamental, systemic changes in the way education is provided. Change was required in the amount and distribution of education to be achieved, the content and learning objectives of education at each level, and the attitude and spirit with which educators at all levels, in all regions and among all the communities, contribute to Namibia's educational and nation-building goals. These expectations were set by the years of struggle and by the decisions made in the negotiations and contingency planning immediately preceding independence. Realistic or not, prudent or not, welcomed by all or not, the general direction and pace of reform was established as a mandate to the new Government. It was a promise to the majority population and a commitment to participate and facilitate by all constituencies, including the many educators who had previously worked to implement the separatist education systems of the colonial government and ethnic administrations. The new Government of Namibia has no choice but to proceed as rapidly and effectively as possible to implement its mandate. Indeed, many of the goals are stated explicitly in the Constitution. (See Figure 1.1, following page)

A second major reality was that the new school system would start in January 1991, little more than 9 months after Independence. The gestational period was perhaps unintended, but is an appropriate metaphor for what is being created. Though many years of strengthening, shaping and refinement will be required before the new education system is fully mature, it must be made viable by January 1991. External assistance, including that from the United States, can have little influence on the quality, relevance or adequacy of the education system in place in 1991. The appropriate focus for the planning of assistance is how best to support Namibia's efforts to articulate and consolidate its programs and to institutionalize the policies and capacities necessary to sustain the process of reform and refinement into the future. That is the focus of this sector review.

THE CONTEXT FOR PLANNING

An enormous amount of detailed curriculum planning, administrative restructuring, budget reallocation and personnel shifts, reconceptualization of teacher training, revision of examinations systems and other work needed to be done in a fraction of the time normally required for such tasks. The task was not just to begin creating a new system; it also was to begin dismantling, transforming and reallocating the old system. Further, the work had to be carried out using personnel more familiar with the old system than the new, with only the Minister, Permanent Secretary and their deputies formally in place and with many other policy-critical government functions in a similar state of transition. In early December 1990, as the team was completing this sector review, most senior administrative

and technical positions within the Ministry of Education had not yet been announced. It remained unclear how education plans and initiatives would be coordinated with the Planning Commission, the Public Service Commission and other key parts of the government. The parliament had not yet decided how to demarcate the administrative regions and political constituencies.

Figure 1.1

THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL GOALS

The basic principles guiding the goals of Education and Culture in independent Namibia are encapsulated in the Basic Law of the land. *Article 17 (Education)* reads:

1. Every person shall have the right to Education regulated by appropriate legislation sanctioned by Parliament.
2. Primary Education shall be free and compulsory and the State shall provide all the reasonable facilities to render effective this right for every resident within the territory of the Republic of Namibia.
3. No child shall be allowed to leave school until he has completed six years of Primary education of until he has reached the age of sixteen (16) whichever be the sooner.
4. Everyone shall have the right to maintain private schools or colleges (whether or not funded in whole or in part by the State or any of its organs) provided that:
   (a) such schools or colleges are registered with a governmental department in accordance with the law authorizing and regulating such registration;
   (b) the standards maintained by such schools or colleges are not inferior to the standards maintained in comparable schools and colleges funded by the State;
   (c) no restrictions of whatever nature are imposed with respect to the admission of pupils or recruitment of staff based on race, colour or creed;
   (d) the propagation and practice of the ideology of apartheid is prohibited in instructions given to the pupils or schools at such schools or colleges.

The education plans in December 1990 necessarily reflect a mix of:

- policy statements and directives from the Ministry (most fully stated in the Minister's Education Reform Directive: 1990);
- existing regulations, laws, administrative procedures (many of which are under review, but in force until officially changed);
- budgets, staffing charts, facilities construction estimates, book and stationary orders, etc. (which reflect the ongoing administrative bureaucracy often working with only estimates and assumptions of what will be required); and

- a wide range of consultant reports, working commissions, advisory committees (often with hortatory advice, sketchy proposals and partial prototypes) used in lieu of more formal plans and decision documents.

The education reform goals and plans are set out in detail in other documents. The reader is referred in particular to the Draft Proposal for Education Reform and Renewal (January 1990), Education in Transition, (July 1990), and the Education Reform Directive: 1990 (November 1990). These official documents and policy statements are supported by an extensive set of commissioned papers, consultant reports, conference summaries and other working papers (see Bibliography for partial listing). Three things are striking about most of these documents:

First, most of the relevant working documents have been prepared within the last year or so. They reflect fresh, current thinking with a focus on developing a new education system appropriate to the particular problems and challenges of Namibia. Though they build on a substantial body of experience in other contexts and the policy environment appears very open to borrowing lessons from other countries, there is remarkably little in the various recommendations of an imitative nature, or admonitions to follow the institutional models or standards of other countries. The exceptions to this generalization are among the areas of controversy, for example, the continued reliance on external examinations.

Many recommendations reflect years of professional study by returnees, of debate within the exile community, and of experience within the education systems run by SWAPO and other organizations outside and inside Namibia, within UNIN in Lusaka, at Loudima in the Congo, and elsewhere. Others reflect the management expertise and bureaucratic experience of those who have been working within the extant system inherited at Independence. Several key strategy papers and reviews of program options were prepared with the help of trusted individuals from the international community. Each of these brings considerable experience to bear from other countries and contexts, for example:

- Education reform priorities (John Turner, Manchester University);
- Organization structure (A. Adamson, Commonwealth Secretariate);
- English language (Thelma Henderson, University of Warwick);
- In-service teacher training (UNDP/UNESCO/UNICEF team);
- Vocational/technical education (Mats Hultin, seconded by SIDA); and
- Examinations (George Bethell, Cambridge Examinations Syndicate).

The relevant fact is that the documents reflect both a remarkably open exploration of appropriate options and a process of decision-making, development of reform guidelines and strategic planning which is still very much underway. Indeed, some of the documents were just being released during the team visit and other working groups were still being commissioned.

Second, most of the documents, including many of the official documents and directives of the Ministry, are presented as part of a process of planning rather than the end product of a planning process. Few documents available to the team describe final decisions; many are in the nature of proposals, working documents for further consultations, and interim guidelines.

This is not a criticism. There is not really an education planning unit in place and the small team of senior decision makers must rely on a wide circle of formal and informal advisors. The Ministry practice of presenting its reform plans for public comment and vetting them widely is particularly to be commended. A priority task is to build consensus and to give as many people as possible a sense of participation in the planning and the implementation of the reforms.

There is an understandable desire in many quarters for more certitude, decisiveness and clarity as to what will be implemented over the next few years. However, the greater danger is of premature closure on complex issues, of false certitude as to probable results in the face of highly unreliable data and lack of field testing and research, and of excessive reliance on standardized, centralized, publicly-managed responses to the wide variety of education needs and aspirations of Namibia.

There is also concern that reform in some areas is moving too slowly, with too much caution, and that faster or more dramatic reforms are required. Such expectations and demands must be balanced against the need to move quickly to achieve visible results (even if this means only satisfying demands for more schools or hostels or other resources under the existing system), of education managers to maintain a degree of bureaucratic accountability for the implementation (biasing plans toward predictability over change) and of all concerned to avoid expensive and irreversible mistakes.

External assistance agencies in particular must respect the fact that the early years of planning and implementation will be somewhat messy and uncertain and that decisions will reflect both more short-term pragmatism than some of the more revolutionary reformers may want and more reluctance to make commitments to specific institutions, programs and workplans than some of the donors may want.

Third, most of the planning documents, proposals and directives are at a high level of generality, reflecting firmer decisions with respect to ends than technical and managerial agreement as to means. The policy debate over the next few years is likely concern how to carry out the directives--how to conduct in-service training and upgrading; how to distribute text materials more effectively; and how to reform the examination systems.

The emphasis rapidly must shift from debate about possible reforms to implementation of the decisions taken. Independent Namibia is no longer an abstraction; it is here and the schools must open in January 1991, whether the planners and reformers have completed their work or not. However, the necessity to move rapidly to implementation may force some premature closure on long-term reform options and leave little room for further discussion of the broad goals of education in the new social, economic and political structure of Namibia. One of the goals for sustaining the spirit of reform should be to en-

sure ongoing debate, experimentation and concern with the question of how education and educators can contribute most effectively to the broad national goals.

THE FRAMEWORK FOR REFORM

The broad goals, parameters and framework for reform can be summarized in three sets of objectives:

- Unify the education system, collapsing the current system of separate ethnic education authorities into a single national education system with both the form and the practice of a common education system for all Namibians;
- Make education as uniform as possible, removing disparities in the quality of education and the adequacy of education inputs as rapidly as possible; concentrating particularly, and as a first priority, on those practices and allocations which reflect the previous policy of separate and unequal education;
- Make education as universal as possible, expanding education to reach all learners and adding additional and alternative education options to meet the full range of learning needs. In short, Namibia seeks to provide "Education for All", moving toward the vision shared at the World Conference on "Education for All" (March, 1990).

Though it is nowhere stated in any official documents or guidelines, the sense of the review team is that the three sets of objectives are given in order of priority. The essential task now is to unify the education systems and to be seen to be doing so as rapidly as possible. The three main elements of this task are:

Elimination of the ethnic school authorities, replacing them with a national education system of fully integrated staff and administrative systems. Staff and administrative integration is beginning now; budgetary and physical planning aspects should be accomplished by the beginning of fiscal 1992 (April 1991). Though the separate authorities will be gone, other tensions may emerge. In particular, there will continue to be tension between a) the mandate to consolidate all functions as part of one national education system and b) the pragmatic administrative need to delegate and decentralize some functions to the regional level, as well as between c) the emphasis on a national curriculum and national standards and d) the desire for innovation, with some flexibility and encouragement for local initiative at the school level.

Introduction of English as the national medium of instruction in all schools, with other languages being presented as subjects. This will be underway in January 1991, beginning with the junior secondary, secondary and tertiary systems. However, it will be several years before it is in full and effective use at the lower primary levels and before all teachers can work competently in English, using materials prepared for the new curriculum and for English language instruction.

Unifying key support functions, particularly teacher training, examinations and curriculum/materials development. Conceptual and planning work for the development of a new set of support units is now underway. The pace at which the National Institute of Education Development (NIED) is established will be the critical factor in how rapidly these new units begin to generate real support for the reforms within the new reform framework. Ground will be broken for the NIED facilities at Okahandja within the next two months and there will almost certainly be a core staff and some technical activity underway early in 1991, perhaps in temporary facilities.

Among the critical issues yet to be determined are: a) how NIED and its research, analysis and development functions will relate to the line functions of the Ministry; b) how key functions will be split between the Ministry, NIED and other specialized units, for example, with the Examinations Board and with the Academy for pre-service and in-service teacher training programs, and; c) how to ensure that the NIED research and experimentation agenda reflects the priority needs of Namibia's education reforms, rather than the curiosity of international researchers and advocates of particular technologies or practices.

A somewhat longer term task is to make education more uniform, at least in terms of government supplied inputs. Budget availability, among other considerations, will force hard decisions. It will be some time before physical facilities can be made comparable, particularly in the rural areas and at the primary level. Urban areas and regions with relatively dense population concentrations are likely to make faster progress on facilities improvement. Junior secondary and secondary facilities are likely to improve faster than primary. The teacher:student ratios will be made more uniform and, particularly as in-service training begins to increase the certification levels of teachers, the allocation of fully certificated teachers should improve. Further, the availability of instructional materials, particularly textbooks, should become more uniform and adequate.

Initially, this is largely a matter of unifying budgets and staffs and resolving logistic bottlenecks at the regional level. For some schools, such as those in the rural areas of the North with minimal facilities and almost no materials, the provision of an essential minimum of facilities, teachers and materials is a first priority. A much more difficult set of issues, however, is how to make the availability of qualified teachers and of instructional materials not just more uniform and quantitatively adequate, but also more appropriate. Until more appropriate materials and other inputs (including teachers) are available for dissemination, reflecting the new curriculum and desired new classroom practices, expanding the inputs to make schools more uniform is not going to change significantly the actual classroom practice or results in most schools.

The objectives of universality, of "Education for All," are prominent in many of the background documents and advisory reports, but are relatively muted in the actual planning documents and implementation directives. Planning is underway for commissions and task forces over the next year or so to address higher education, vocational/technical education, early childhood education and other topics. Similarly, there is awareness of the need for expanded literacy and adult education programs. However, the immediate focus is on the formal school systems and the administrative, teacher training and technical sup-

port functions required to implement the new formal education systems. If there is to be major initiative in the area of adult and nonformal education, the Non-Government Organizations (NGOs) will have to play a major role.

Though the team found strong and consistent emphasis on overcoming the gross inequities and discriminatory practices inherited from the apartheid past, there is relatively little active attention to other sources of inequity. Namibia is committed to ensuring that all children have an equal chance to succeed. However, this will require more attention than is now evident to the differences among children as they enter and to the need to design materials and pedagogic systems to ensure that all children have a fair start chance to succeed.

There is concern for improving the miserable school conditions in rural areas and in overcrowded schools of the North, moving toward a more even and equitable distribution of resources. Otherwise, regional disparities in access and regional differences in delivery systems are rarely mentioned. There is great concern for the grade repetition and dropout at the lower primary level, but the short-term focus of the reforms is on the junior secondary level. High levels of grade repetition, failure and dropout are recognized as symptoms of poor school environments. However, there is less concern for the structural factors and examination practices which almost necessitate significant numbers of students repeating grades. There was a sense in many of the interviews that social rationing on the basis of examinations or other qualifications was necessary and normal, so long as it was fairly done and with all having an equal chance to compete. Virtually no person interviewed found it inappropriate that many children repeat grades, though many interviewees thought it wasteful and inefficient.

Similarly, most interviews and documents noted that girls participate in school in equal if not greater numbers than boys, with only a few exceptions. However, few appeared concerned with the stereotypical, ascriptive vocational training options for girls and nobody commented on the near total absence of women in the administrative ranks of the education systems. In a wide range of interviews and meetings throughout the country, the team met many female teachers, but only one headmistress (at the non-government People's Primary School). There were no women in any of the meetings with the regional education authorities or with the Ministry in Windhoek.

MEDIUM-TERM PRIORITIES

One of the goals for the short- to medium-term should be the reinforcement of a process of ongoing planning and consultation, reflecting not so much the urgency of somehow getting decisions made during the transition phase, but the desirability of ensuring continuing refinement and improvement of systems, objectives and practices at all levels.

Most immediately, Namibia must move quickly both to restructure its existing administrative and support functions and to begin the process of expanding and upgrading education services. The restructuring and expansion objectives are somewhat in tension, and Namibia will have to achieve a balance between those who want faster and more radical progress and those who want to ensure that the reforms go smoothly and efficiently

during the transition phase of the next few years. The magnitude and dimensions of the reforms are discussed in Chapters Two and Four.

Namibia is moving very fast, making decisions with the best available advice, but without the time to proceed through careful experimentation and field testing of options. Given this short-term necessity, a priority medium-term goal should be the testing, monitoring, refinement and rationalization of the initiatives now being taken under the pressure of time. See the discussion of needed analytic capacities in Chapters Five and Six.

Namibia must make changes simultaneously in many aspects of its education systems. It is not possible to attend to everything equally. Of necessity, priority is being given to a few key functions and tasks, such as the consolidation and integration of the administrative offices, and the introduction of English as the medium of instruction. Furthermore, some parts of the system will receive administrative attention and new resources before others, particularly the junior secondary level, teacher training colleges and key central units, such as NIED and the Examinations Board.

As time permits, an essential task is to ensure that all aspects of planning are mutually complementary. Curriculum planning, examinations reform, instructional materials development, teacher training, in-service training and field support for teachers and school administrators all need to be integrated as part of a coherent, effective instructional system rather than as separate functions or management units. See the discussion of instructional effectiveness in Chapter Three and of instructional systems planning in Chapter Six.

Similarly, Namibia must assess its resource base and put in place procedures and analytic protocols for ensuring that its plans are based on realistic assessments of available resources. Donors should work actively a) to encourage as much openness to public dialogue and transparency of public decisions as possible; b) to encourage rigorous empirical analysis and costing of options at all levels, and; c) to encourage as wide and diverse a partnership with communities, private initiatives and non-governmental actors as possible. A related goal should be agreement on appropriate mechanisms and processes for coordinating the offers of external assistance with the internal planning and decision-making processes of the Ministry. See the discussion of public resources in Chapter Seven and of non-government resources in Chapter Eight.

Finally, the goals of all those involved with education reform must be set in a broader framework than the simple management of the tasks of education expansion, consolidating administrative structures and implementing a new curriculum. Unless the broad goals, parameters and frameworks for reform are kept prominent in the debate about how to solve particular problems, such as teacher upgrading, examinations reform, materials development and supply, etc., it will be impossible to know whether resources are being allocated optimally.

CHAPTER TWO

HISTORY, STRUCTURE AND BASIC DATA

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

At the time of national independence a complex system for administering education was operational throughout Namibia. This system, put in place by the colonial authority, has been described as inequitable and discriminatory. The maintenance of apartheid policies was clearly a principal determinant of the characteristics of the educational system. While there was reasonable equality for entrance to formal schooling, there were enormous differences among black, colored, and white students in their opportunity to succeed and progress through the schooling sequence. The administrative and examination controls that governed students' progress through school were largely responsible for these inequalities of opportunity for learner success, not merely the inadequacies of the system.

Education in Namibia was formed and controlled by five different laws or acts:

1. The Children's Act, 1960 (Act 33 of 1960)
2. The Basters of Rehoboth Act, 1972 (Act 85 of 1972)
3. The National Education Act (Act 30 of 1980)
4. The Proclamation on Representative Authorities, 1980
5. The Academy Act, 1985 (Act of 1985)

Regional Administrative Authorities. The Proclamation on Representative Authorities in 1980 established the territory and ethnic constituents of the ten administrative authorities and assigned them the responsibility for the development and administration of their areas, including education. The division of the country into these authorities was essentially drawn on ethnic lines. The National Education Act in the same year created the Department of National Education (DNE), an eleventh educational administrative authority. It was responsible for operating schools in the country which did not fall into one of the ten ethnic categories or which other administrative authorities were unable to administer.

These largely autonomous administrative entities were thus given responsibility for building, staffing, and administering schools, teacher training colleges, hostels, and a regional educational directorate. They were also responsible for training primary school teachers in their jurisdictions. The regional educational office was headed by a Director from the region and appointed by regional authorities and had a range of support personnel including educational planners, inspectors, subject advisers, and logistical staff. All school principals and hostel managers in the region reported to the regional director.

The Examination Board. At the same time and by the same law that the DNE was created, two other entities were also established: (1) the National Education Council; and (2) the Examination Board. Provision was made for representation from the eleven administrative authorities on the Council and the Board. It should be noted that there was no governmental agency equivalent to, nor serving the function of, a traditional Ministry of Education in Namibia prior to independence in March, 1990. However, the National Education Council and the Examination Board served to provide a measure of centralized direction to the regionally dispersed educational administrations. The Council's function was to advise the Central Authority (the administrative group appointed by the Republic of South Africa to govern the country prior to its independence) on educational matters. The Council is not presently active.

As a statutory body, the Examination Board exercises considerable centralized control over education throughout the country. It is responsible for approving the examination requirements and passing standards for all schools in the country. It effectively established the syllabi at the different levels of primary and secondary education and determines which textbooks are to be included in the approved list each year. It also promulgates rules and regulations for all public schools associated with examinations, standards, and course syllabi. The syllabi, with the exceptions of a few private schools, are the same as the Cape Education Authority of the Republic of South Africa. In a program of education that is largely "exam driven" not a great deal of variance in course content, instructional materials, or teaching practice has been possible among the several educational authorities. Until the Examination Board is superseded or its role changed is by legislative action, its functions and sweeping authorities are intact.

POPULATION IN FORMAL BASIC EDUCATION

In 1989 the Department of Economic Affairs reported a pre-tertiary school enrollment of 372,572 students. This figure included students from pre- primary through Standard 10 and enrollments in technical institutes and special schools. Standard 10 is equivalent to the last grade in high school, grade 12 in the United States. Table 2.1 shows this enrollment by academic levels. While school enrollment figures are thought to be fairly accurate, national population estimates are far less precise. The last national census was taken in 1981 and resulted in a population estimate of 1,076,000. A new census will be taken in 1991. In the meantime, current population estimates vary from 1.2 to 1.5 million. Thus it is impossible to determine with great accuracy what percentage of the school age population is, in fact, enrolled in school. School personnel, when asked if there were many children in the areas served by their school who did not enroll, gave answers ranging from "there are many who don't come" to "only a very few." Several schools reported that classes were not held during the rains for the youngest children, who tended to have the least adequate classrooms for shelter. Government officials have given estimates of the school age cohort not in school ranging from a low of 20 percent to a high of 60 percent. Until the new national census is completed, there is no way to know what percentage of the school age cohort is attending school.

Table 2.1

NUMBER OF PUPILS BY YEAR AND STANDARD – ALL AUTHORITIES
1989

Standard	Total	Boys	Girls	1988	1987	1986
Total	372,572	176,280	196,292	374,269	364,404	350,080
ORDINARY SCHOOLS						
Project Year	343	146	1,154	561	–	–
Pre-Primary	4,756	2,319	3,602	4,727	3,224	4,568
Sub A	69,009	34,447	34,303	67,809	69,902	68,895
Sub B	49,939	25,361	24,461	51,997	50,356	49,171
1	44,407	22,007	22,384	45,721	45,177	44,807
2	44,580	21,320	22,976	46,304	45,408	43,619
3	37,882	17,310	20,057	38,520	37,433	35,302
4	35,758	15,582	19,471	36,485	29,735	27,442
5	25,832	11,152	14,087	24,809	30,791	25,749
6	21,359	9,121	11,734	21,220	17,385	18,860
7	16,819	7,229	9,213	14,735	14,063	12,082
8	12,803	5,438	7,157	12,048	11,970	11,112
9	4,502	2,328	2,145	4,958	4,623	4,198
10	3,249	1,594	1,641	3,020	3,140	3,106
After Std 10	37	23	14	62	46	59
Special Classes	304	120	94	327	309	346
Auxiliary Classes	158	98	60	128	140	113
9 Practical	–	–	–	–	–	–
10 Practical	–	–	–	–	–	28
Specialized Education	284	153	131	280	263	256
TECHNICAL INSTITUTES						
1st Year	122	122	–	115	60	41
2nd Year	121	121	–	150	83	71
3rd Year	58	58	–	47	45	39
4th Year	3	3	–	–	5	3
SPECIAL SCHOOLS						
Year Level 1	14	–	14	13	12	7
Year Level 2	46	22	24	39	35	38
Year Level 3	67	47	20	65	65	63
Year Level 4	20	11	9	27	40	33
Year Level 5	27	19	8	40	33	22
NTC1	73	39	34	62	61	50

SOURCE: Department of Economic Affairs

Student attendance records are kept neither at the regional nor central level, so the number of students who remain in school for the full academic year cannot be determined. Attrition during the school year and absenteeism were reported not to be excessive by many of the teachers interviewed by the survey team. With the educational data available to the team, there was no way to verify these local school reports. However, shrinkage in the size of the group moving to the next higher grade is observed at all grade levels. From the annual enrollment data it appears to be most significant in the primary grades. For example, 67,809 students entered Substandard A (grade 1) in 1988. This group was reduced to 49,939 by the next year when the group moved to Substandard B (grade 2). This is a loss of 26 percent, but a large number of these are repeating Substandard A.

There appears to be little, if any, gender discrimination at any of the levels of public education—at least in terms of access to education. There is differentiation between boys and girls in access to particular courses of study. Total female enrollment (196,292) is somewhat higher than male enrollment (176,280).

The data indicate a relatively high level of grade repetition. In primary schools, student age ranges from five to nineteen years, with a few under the normal age and a large number overage. Nearly 90 percent of the total 1988 school enrollment are in the first nine years of school.

CAPACITY BY REGIONAL AUTHORITY

The 1988 enrollments in primary and junior secondary schools and the total number of schools by administrative authority are shown in Table 2.2. Enrollments range from a high of 186,587 in the Owambo Authority to a low of 720 in the Tswana Authority. Basic educational funding for the eleven educational authorities is provided by the central government, with a large variation in terms of per pupil allocations each year. Unesco estimated that per pupil resources allocated each year for the ten ethnic authorities (for black and colored) were one-tenth those allocated to the white student authority. It is estimated also that 99 percent of the untrained teachers and 80 percent of the under-qualified teachers are in the black educational authorities.

The Survey Team visited a number of primary and secondary schools in eight of the administrative authorities. The schools ranged from a few with excellent physical facilities and educational resources, including computer and science laboratories, music rooms, woodwork shops, as well as roomy and well-lit classrooms, to a much larger number in the rural areas, where the physical condition of the schools was quite primitive. A typical rural school was characterized by dirt floors, pole and mud siding, and thatched roofs - without electricity and with only a single source of water. However, most of these schools had benches or chairs and desks for the pupils, a blackboard and storage space for instructional materials. The deficiencies in the quality of teaching and learning in the rural schools probably cannot be attributed solely to these spartan classrooms and schools. One had the impression that with competent, motivated teachers and appropriate instructional materials, learning could take place in these schools despite the absence of amenities.

Table 2.2
1988 ENROLLMENTS IN PRIMARY AND JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND NUMBER OF SCHOOLS

Admin. Author	No. of Schools	Primary Jr. 1–3	Primary Sr. 4–6	Junior Secondary 7–9	Total
Whites	65	3,901	3,698	3,747	11,346
Caprivians	74	7,666	7,376	4,316	19,358
Damaras	23	3,035	3,244	2,570	8,849
Hereros	42	7,198	6,208	2,751	16,157
Kavangos	239	20,148	9,513	2,817	32,478
Coloureds	35	4,820	4,828	3,579	13,227
Namas	38	4,318	3,956	2,403	10,677
Tswanas	2	239	190	291	720
Owambos	510	94,006	64,389	28,192	186,587
DNE	104	16,898	14,896	7,580	39,374
Rehoboth	39	3,298	3,011	2,518	8,827
TOTAL	1,1711	165,527	121,309	60,764	347,600

SOURCE: Department of Economic Affairs

CURRENT ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

The educational system is in a state of major transition and is presently undergoing dramatic organizational change. Some of these changes received final government approval during the Survey Team's stay in Namibia and will take effect in early 1991. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Youth and Sport (MOE) has been established, with Mr. Nahas Angula as Minister. A number of the administrative personnel from the Administrative Authority for Whites and the Department of National Education have been assigned acting roles in the Ministry organization. An organizational structure and manning tables for the central ministry and the proposed new regional offices have been submitted to the Public Service Commission for approval. The 20,871 administrative support and teaching positions in the central and regional offices will be increased to 22,281 in the coming year. The ratio of administrators and support personnel to classroom teachers is much higher than most countries and most of the new positions are in administration and support. In his report, John Turner stated, "If the staff of the various different educational administrations were added together they would far exceed the number of staff who one would anticipate as being necessary for a nation the size and population of Namibia." Improving and upgrading management and administrative skills is more important than increasing the number of these positions.

The existing regional offices at Ondangwa, Rundu, Khorixas, Katima Mulilo and Keetmanshoop will be expanded and strengthened. A new regional office will be established in Windhoek and will subsume the authority and responsibility of the former offices of the Department of National Education and the Administrative Authorities for White, Coloured, Hereros, Rehoboth, and Tswana.

Figure 2.1 shows the recently approved organizational chart of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Youth and Sport. The old ethnic educational authorities no longer exist and the six new regional directorates are an integral part of the national educational system. The regional directors will report to a Deputy Permanent Secretary. Noteworthy in the organization is the creation of new division, the National Institute for Education Development (NIED). NIED has been described as the potential "nerve center" of the Ministry and the Institute will play a critical role in the transition from colonialism to independence for the educational sector. NIED will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

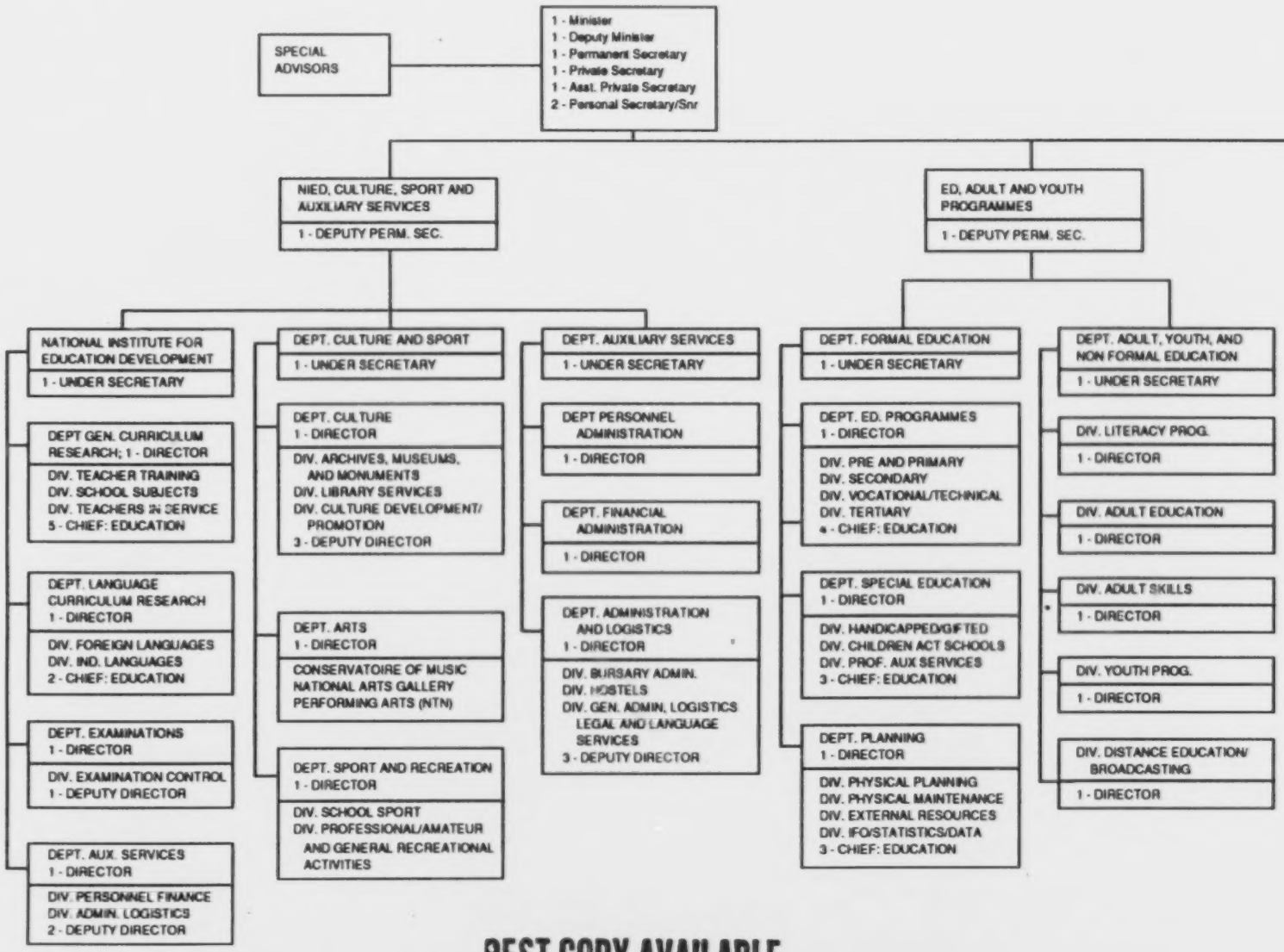
Article 141 of the Constitution provides that all civil servants employed by the government prior to independence are guaranteed continued employment in their same position and pay level. It is not yet clear whether this will limit lateral or geographic transfers. This ruling could seriously constrain the new Government's flexibility in staffing for educational improvement.

SCHOOL LEVEL STRUCTURAL CHANGE

In addition to the major organizational changes in the central ministry and regional offices, there are changes in the organization of schools. These changes are summarized in Figure 2.2. The primary school sequence, which has been historically six years (Substandard A through Standard 4), will become seven years and will be grades one through seven. Junior Secondary will be grades eight through ten. Senior Secondary will be grades eleven through twelve. The IGCSE (Cambridge University) exam given at the end of the eleventh or twelfth year and students sitting for the Matric exam at the end of the twelfth year. Some schools will provide the additional option of continuing study to prepare for the A-Level examinations. These proposed changes will considerably increase flexibility in a student's program of studies and will better accommodate variances in individual motivation.

Figure 2.1
1990 Organizational Structure of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Youth and Sport

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, CULTURE, YOUTH, AND SPORT



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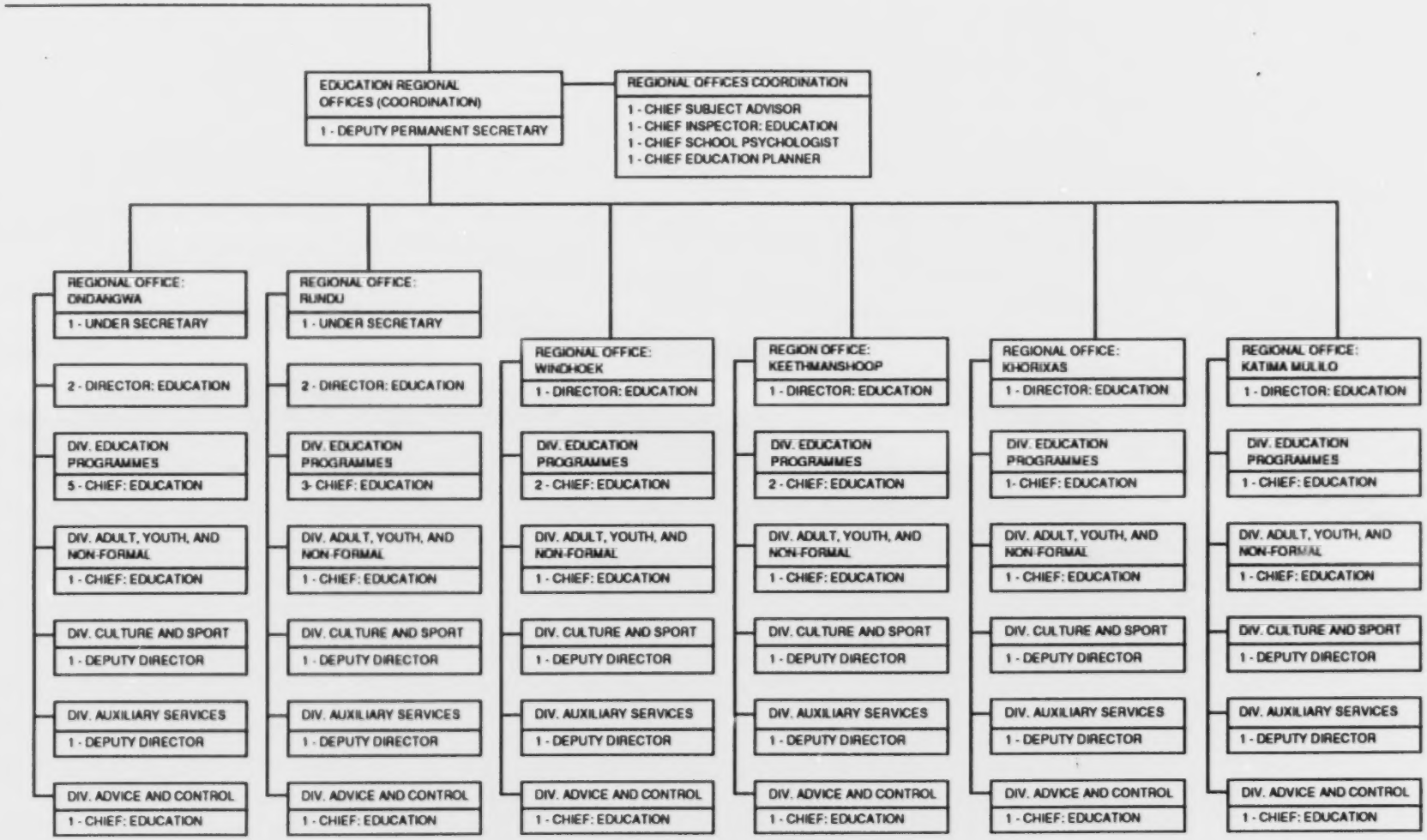

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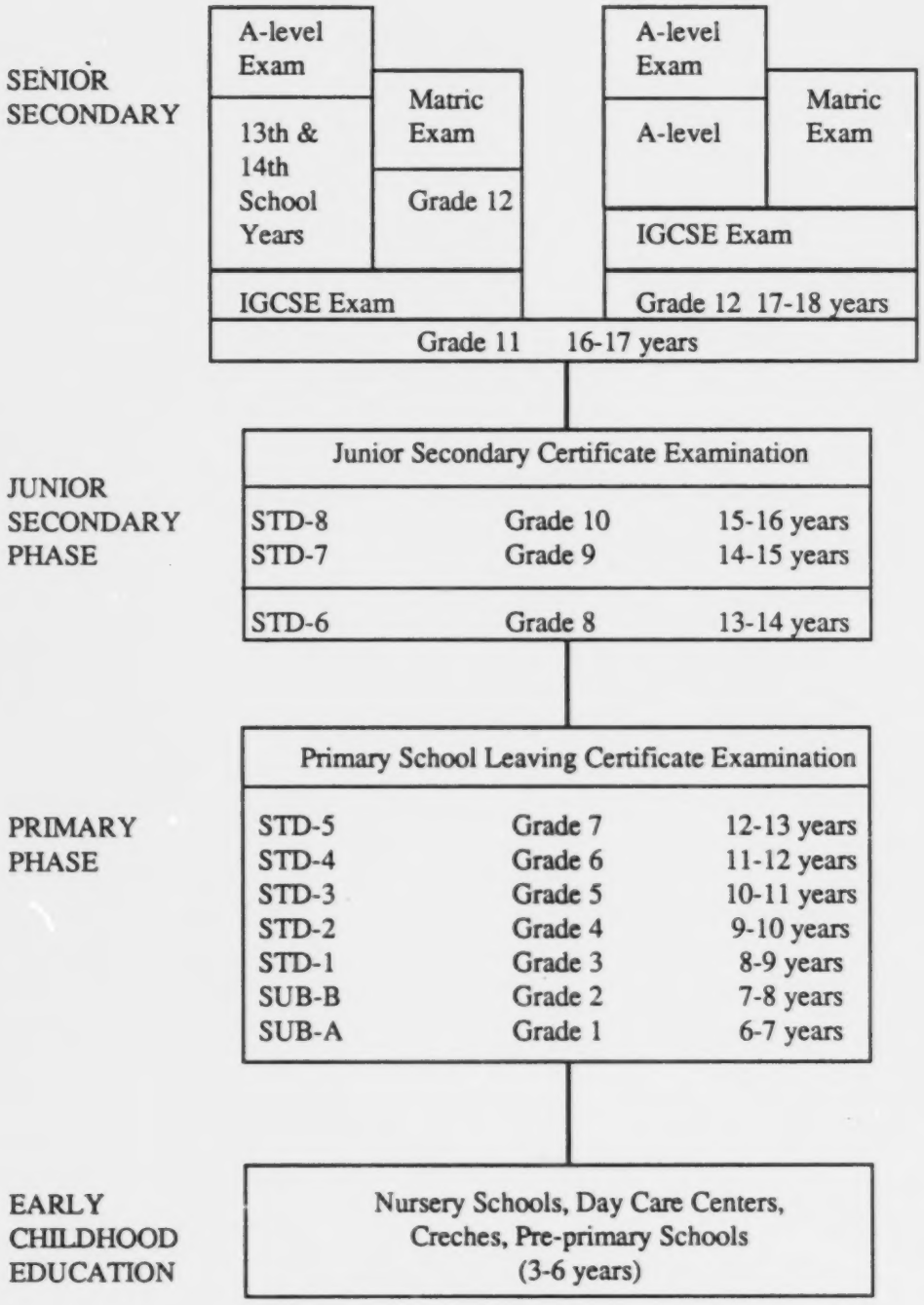
Figure 2.2
Revised School Organization by Academic Level



CHAPTER THREE

EQUITY AND EFFICIENCY DIMENSIONS IN NAMIBIAN EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION

The education system that existed in Namibia prior to Independence was both inequitable and inefficient when judged by any criteria other than those of the privileged minority. The system was fragmented along lines of ethnicity and this fragmentation facilitated the maintenance of inequities. The eleven administrative authorities varied by openness of access, by retention, by repetition, by success on examinations, and by the quality and amount of resources provided. A "convergence of disadvantage" was created wherein those very children who needed an equitable opportunity for education were denied it or, as was more common, if they gained access to education, it was to a system of profound inefficiency.

During this period of transition after Independence, it is critical that the linkage between Namibia's educational inequities and its inefficiencies be clearly recognized. The Administration for Whites created a curriculum, an administrative structure, and an instructional delivery system that was effective, but only at very high levels of cost. This system is simply not replicable for the majority population within the resource constraints faced by Namibia for the foreseeable future. Such a system would be effective at social selection and in terms of the average academic ability of graduates, but would continue the serious access, retention, and achievement inequities of the past. Even a strategy to reallocate funds away from presently advantaged schools would have little more than a symbolic effect; the task of upgrading education for the majority population is so large that the resources taken away from minority schools would, by themselves, achieve little.

Given the Government's explicit policy to focus all new resources on the needy schools, a principal aim of policy must be to identify a system of instructional delivery that is both effective and affordable. Eventual equality in school results in Namibia does not require that all students be exposed to the same educational inputs and process; it does require that an *efficient* process be identified and that *sufficient* resources be provided to allow all Namibian children to compete on an equitable basis.

The following discussion will be in three parts. First, statistical indicators of system inequities will be presented and discussed. Second, indicators of internal efficiency (how well the educational system meets its own goals relative to cost) will be reviewed and the issue of external efficiency (how well education serves the needs of society relative to cost) will be discussed; the lack of graduate tracer surveys or detailed employment data will force this latter discussion to be almost exclusively inferential. Third, the major issues that have surfaced in the equity and efficiency analyses will be summarized as preparation for the next chapter's discussion of Government programs to deal with these concerns.

EQUITY CONCERNS

There are four major dimensions of educational equity discussed here-- access, retention and attainment, availability of inputs, and educational outcomes. The statistical basis for comparisons of groups include such characteristics as race/ethnicity, geographic region, size of place, gender, and social status or income class. The data available for Namibia directly facilitates analysis by region and gender, but because of the concomitance of most of the former administrative regions with social/ethnic identification, that characteristic can be studied as well.

Access. Table 3.1 presents estimates of the student population as a percentage of the full population for the 12 racial/ethnic groups. The weakness of general population data in Namibia makes the calculation of age-specific groups extremely unreliable; therefore, no calculations are made as to pupil proportions of the school age cohort. Even with this constraint, an interesting pattern of participation by groups emerges. Participation rates appear highest for the Caprivian, Herero, Owambo, and Coloured groups and lowest for the Bushman and White groups. This appears counter-intuitive until one considers the differences in age distributions. Whites, in addition to lower repetition rates, have a significantly smaller part of their total population of school age because of lower birth rates and the health and other advantages that facilitate larger members of the population surviving to older age groups. The opposite is true for the Herero and Owambo. The "high" level for the Caprivians (if the population data are approximately correct) may reflect the superior educational demand for which that region is known (and which is sufficient to offset their large younger age cohort), while the low level among Bushmen reflects the difficult reality of providing education to this population given its dispersed location and cultural traditions.

While data on the proportion of the 5 to 7 year-olds who attain initial access to schooling is not dependable, most observers do not believe that initial access to schooling is the critical issue at this time. Rather, the poor quality of many of the present schools renders access an irrelevant accomplishment to a majority of those who achieve it. An unusual and potentially worrisome pattern exists in terms of the absolute number of entrants into the first year of schooling. In total, the number of Sub A students increased from 67,809 to 69,009 between 1988 and 1989. However, the 1989 level is only 114 more Sub A students than there were in 1986. Four Administrations (Whites, Caprivians, Kavangos, and Tswanas) had fewer Sub A students in 1989 than in the previous year – for Whites this probably reflects migration and shifts to private or out-of-country schooling; no such factors appear to apply to the other three Administrations. Compared to 1986, three Administrations (Kavangos, Namas, and Owambos) had fewer Sub A students in 1989. Even if these populations were not seeing increasing school age cohort growth rates, one would expect to see increasing participation. A counter point is that, if repetition were reduced in Sub A over time, lower Sub A levels in later years would not be a concern; there is no basis for believing this has happened in the disadvantaged regions. It is noteworthy to repeat that the Kavango and Owambo Administrations together involve more than one-half of the population and 59.8 per cent of all pupils.

Table 3.1

NUMBER OF PUPILS AS PERCENTAGE OF THE POPULATION BY POPULATION GROUP (1989)

Population Group	Pupils	Estimated Population	Pupils as percentage of the population
Total	372,572	1,208,000	29
White	17,402	86,000	20
Bushman	1,942	37,000	5
Caprivian	22,289	49,000	45
Damara	26,951	97,000	28
Herero	29,658	97,000	31
Kavango	33,389	120,000	28
Coloured	15,543	54,000	29
Nama	15,087	61,000	25
Rehoboth Baster	8,430	32,000	26
Tswana	1,932	8,000	24
Wambo	196,271	641,000	31
Other	3,678	12,000	31

SOURCE: Department of Economic Affairs, *Statistics of Schools, 1986 to 1989*, 1990.

Retention and Attainment. Once a student gains access to a school, the next critical consideration is their ability to stay in school and progress through the system. This process of retention and attainment also relates to the concept of cycle cost, an efficiency measure defined and discussed in the later internal efficiency discussion. For the purposes of the equity discussion, it is important to note that the three Administrations that suffer the highest initial attrition (prior to Grade 3) are the Kavangos, Owambos and the Tswanas. Respectively, they have only 31.5, 39.6 and 45.1 students in Standard 3 for every 100 in Sub A. In fact, the attrition between Sub A in 1988 and Sub B in 1989 equaled 40.4 per cent for the Kavango Administration and 30.5 per cent for the Owambo Administration.

The advantages of students in the White Administration can be indicated by tracking the percentage they represent of all students at various grade levels:

Sub A	–	1.9%
Standard 3	–	2.9
Standard 6	–	5.6
Standard 8	–	8.7
Standard 9	–	22.0
Standard 10	–	30.5

These data present dramatic evidence of the inefficiency as well as the inequality that has existed in the Namibian educational system in terms of retention and attainment.

Availability of Inputs. One factor which may determine a substantial proportion of the differences in educational success in Namibia is that of resource availability. Such availability can be analyzed in terms of a summary financial measure (usually expenditures per student) or by assessing the availability of specific resources, such as teachers, facilities, and instructional materials.

The 1990 estimate of per student expenditures by Administration is presented in Table 3.2 (which includes other equity indicators as well). The White Administration expended R5,105 per student. This includes the expensive and underutilized Windhoek Teachers College. The next closest Administration was the DNE, but their estimate of R2,282 is inflated also because of the inclusion of subsidies to the Academy in the DNE budget; the adjusted figure is R1,725. The Tswana Administration expended R2,736--this cost was inflated by the high rate of hostel use and the low aggregate number of students.

Table 3.2

INDICATORS OF EQUITY IN NAMIBIAN EDUCATION (1989)

Administration	Percent of all Students	1990 per Student Costs	Student-Teacher Ratio	Teachers: % with Std. 10 Education +	Ratio of 1988 Preprimary to 1989 Sub. A	Percent Female Total	Percent Female Sub.A	Std. 10	Percent Boarding Students
Caprivians	6.0	839	28.9	35.1	—	48.5	48.3	36.4	2.2
Coloureds	3.9	2,021	23.0	74.2	40.7	50.9	44.3	50.8	14.2
Damaras	2.7	1,723	24.0	34.9	7.6	50.7	47.2	38.5	48.2
Dept. of Natn'l Education	12.4	1,725	23.8	50.5	3.5	51.4	49.8	47.6	21.6
Hereros	4.8	1,578	26.3	14.7	—	49.6	49.4	42.4	67.6
Kavangos	9.1	814	28.2	10.6	17.2	49.3	51.5	26.2	15.0
Namas	3.1	1,567	22.4	39.0	—	51.5	50.6	42.9	15.6
Owambos	50.7	616	37.9	21.3	—	55.2	50.4	67.4	6.8
Rehoboth	2.8	2,129	21.2	64.9	—	50.3	49.2	58.1	9.7
Tswanas	0.3	2,736	23.6	52.4	—	49.9	41.3	—	98.3
Whites	4.3	5,105	13.3	98.9	17.3	48.2	47.7	49.4	24.1
Total	100.0	1188	28.9	38.0	6.8	52.7	50.1	50.9	14.7

SOURCE: Calculations based on data from Ministry of Education, Culture, Youth and Sport and the Department of Economic Affairs

At the other end of the expenditure distribution are the Caprivians (R839), the Kavangos (R814), and the Owambos (R616). These financial differences translate into

even larger educational differences when one considers the cost disadvantages (higher costs of materials and supplies, for example) of education in the North and the higher need of these populations for educational assistance.

One common resource measure is access to teachers; this normally is measured by student-teacher ratios. Again the Kavangos (28.2 students per teacher), the Caprivians (28.9), and the Owambos (37.9) contrast very unfavorably with the Whites (13.3). These figures underestimate the effect at primary education levels where student- teacher ratios are relatively even higher for the most disadvantaged Administrations. Class-student ratios are larger because all teachers cannot be used efficiently given the nature of the subject specializations at higher grade levels.

A corollary issue is the qualifications of the teachers to whom the student has access. For Whites, 98.9 percent of their teachers have a Standard 10 education or above. For Kavangos, Hereros, and Owambos the percentages are 10.6, 14.7, and 21.3 respectively. For the highest four levels of teacher classification (approximately equivalent to degree holders), the White system has 54.3 per cent of all the teachers at this qualifications level.

Data on facilities quality are only now being collected by the MOE. However, the pattern of advantage for the Windhoek area and the former White Administration is replicated. One success of the DNE, however, was to improve the quality of facilities for the non-white population in Windhoek and, to a lesser but still significant extent, in the other areas of Namibia. Part of the MOE's plan to improve equity and efficiency is to place a priority on new construction in the previously disadvantaged areas.

Table 3.2 includes data on the use of hostels by students (boarding students). The Tswana Administration, in part because of the geographic sparsity of their population distribution, has the highest proportion of boarding students (98.3%) and Rehoboth (9.7%), Owambos (6.8%), and Caprivians (2.2%) have the lowest proportions. Boarding has financial, access and learning advantages for disadvantaged children who live in sparsely populated areas. The feeding program, the opportunity for supervised study, and the support of the hostel staff all act to provide an improved learning environment for the disadvantaged child, albeit at a higher unit cost.

The instructional materials issue is an especially problematic one. Some textbooks are provided by Government, but most replacement books are paid for by the individual region. Some regions, such as the Kavango and Owambo, simply will not have enough funds left in their allocated FY 1992 budget for a full complement of textbooks after they have covered their fixed cost for personnel and boarding expenses. An equally important source of inequity is the fact that the available textbooks do not make use of accepted instructional design techniques and require pedagogical skills and language ability far beyond that of the local teachers in disadvantaged areas. Materials that are successful in Windhoek, with highly trained and experienced teachers, simply are not always appropriate for other areas. The convergence of inappropriate materials and less-qualified teachers is a dramatic burden for the disadvantaged regions.

A more subtle form of inequity may exist in terms of subject choices available at the secondary level. Almost all possible curricular choices (with the notable exception of

local languages) were available in White Administration secondary schools, while in other regions a large number of choices were not available. This issue requires further study to determine the extent of the inequity, but in an examination-oriented system, such divergence in available choices could create important inequities.

Outcomes. It would be possible to tolerate some of these differences in availability of learning resources if the outcomes of education were more similar. However, the aforementioned variations in access, retention and attainment, and resource availability are repeated in terms of education outputs. The standard output measures used are graduation, access to further education, and employment and earnings.

As has already been discussed, the Namibian educational system is highly influenced by the examination structure. In addition to the two major external examinations given at the end of Std. 8 and Std. 10, school-based examinations are given throughout the system. Table 3.3 presents the school assigned pass and fail marks for each grade of education from Sub A to Std. 10 and for the four major levels within the DNE schools. The average pass rate decreases from 80.4 per cent in Junior Primary to 44.0 per cent in Senior Secondary. The highest grade level pass rate is at Sub B while the lowest rates are for Stds. 9 and 10. There is no significant or consistent difference by gender, at least for the DNE Administration.

Table 3.3

PASS/FAIL RATES AT DNE SCHOOLS BY GRADE LEVEL (1988)

STANDARD	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Pass %	Fail %	Percent of Females Who Fail
SUB A	2,153	2,225	4,378	661	515	1,176	78.8	21.2	18.8
SUB B	1,943	2,063	4,006	494	397	891	81.8	18.2	16.1
Std. 1	1,845	1,905	3,750	501	389	890	80.8	19.2	17.0
Std. 2	1,480	1,650	3,130	726	684	1,410	68.9	31.1	29.3
Std. 3	1,343	1,536	2,879	679	747	1,426	66.9	33.1	32.7
Std. 4	1,057	1,282	2,339	897	1,167	2,064	53.1	46.9	47.7
Std. 5	826	933	1,759	299	399	698	71.6	28.4	30.0
Std. 6	514	700	1,214	297	392	689	63.8	36.2	35.9
Std. 7	413	419	832	290	341	631	56.9	43.1	44.9
Std. 8	203	161	364	293	288	581	38.5	61.5	64.1
Std. 9	149	134	283	139	141	280	50.3	49.7	51.3
Std. 10	72	43	115	70	37	107	51.8	48.2	46.3
Junior Primary	5,941	6,193	12,134	1,656	1,301	2,957	80.4	19.6	17.4
Senior Primary	3,880	4,468	8,348	2,302	2,598	4,900	63.0	37.0	36.8
Junior Secondary	1,753	2,052	3,805	886	1,132	2,018	65.3	34.7	35.6
Senior Secondary	424	338	762	502	446	968	44.0	56.0	58.0
Total	11,998	13,051	25,049	5,346	5,497	10,843	69.8	30.2	29.6

SOURCE: MOE, Examinations Division

Table 3.4 summarizes the pass rates by Administration for 1989 for the Std. 8 external examination and for 1988 for the Senior Certificate examination given at the end of Std. 10. In 1989 the average pass rate reported for the Std. 8 examination was 19.4 per cent and ranged from 6.4 per cent for Kavango to 39.7 per cent for the DNE; data for the White and Coloured Administrations are not reported because they did not participate in the external examination process at this level.

Table 3.4

EXTERNAL EXAMINATION RESULTS
STANDARDS 8 AND 10

ADMINISTRATION	STANDARD 8 (1988) TOTAL	% PASS	STANDARD 10 (1989) TOTAL	% PASS
DNE	1,015	39.7	293	46.8
CAPRIVI	1,476	34.7	204	46.1
DAMARA	384	39.0	129	23.3
HERERO	346	27.1	36	11.1
KAVANGO	--*	6.4	26	7.7
COLOURED	428	–	327	60.6
NAMAS	--*	28.7	85	22.4
REHOBOTH	164	–	221	63.3
TSWANAS	4,683	33.5	0	–
WAMBOS	--*	6.8	310	11.0
WHITES	--*	–	855	93.8
TOTAL	9,062	19.4	2,486	58.7

* Not Reported

SOURCE: MOE, Examinations Divisions

The pass rates for the Senior Certificate in 1988 averaged 58.7 per cent and ranged from 93.8 per cent for Whites to 11.0 per cent for Owambos and 7.7 per cent for Kavangos. Thus, the pattern of inequity shown in other comparisons is (not surprisingly) replicated here.

Access to further education is limited by the results of these internal and external examinations. Also, access to modern sector employment is facilitated or constrained by access to, retention in, and graduation from these higher levels of education. A successful attempt to promote equity in examination results, in further education, and in employ-

ment presupposes more equitable treatment of students throughout the educational system. A final outcome issue for which no data exists is the nature of the skill and attitude mix that students take with them if they leave education at the end of the primary or junior secondary level. The excessive orientation of the system toward Std. 10 success may mean that early leavers feel they have "failed" even if they have acquired literacy and numeracy skills and attitudes and behaviors that could make them productive workers in their own communities or regions. If this is so, it would represent a final indignity of the system on top of an extraordinary convergence of inequities and inefficiencies.

EFFICIENCY CONCERNS

One means of extending the impact of available resources is to increase the efficiency with which they are used by the educational system. Efficiency in this context refers to increasing the educational results obtained for a given input of resources. The measures commonly used are unit cost (resources per student), cycle cost (resources per graduate), and rate of return (an estimate of the relative present value of educational lifetime costs and benefits). The available data for Namibia allows for the calculation of reasonably accurate unit costs (1990 budget divided by 1989 enrollments) and highly approximate cycle costs (made more difficult because of the high and variable repetition levels), but not for rate of return estimates. The volatility of the educational and economic situations would make the rate of return estimates highly suspect in any case.

The variation in unit costs for education were discussed as part of the equity presentation. The inability to separate unit costs by level of education, because the previous budget data set did not separate expenditure items by level or type of education, reduces their value for policy analysis. A critical point is that while high unit cost can reflect either financial waste or high quality, it will be extremely difficult for any level of efficiency to promote quality results or instructional effectiveness comparable to what existed in the White Administration at the funding levels that exist for the former Caprivi, Kavango, or Owambo Administrations.

Table 3.5 presents the cycle cost estimates for the former eleven Administrations. Cycle costs are calculated both in student years and in Rand; the student years value represents the number of years of prior education offered for every graduate produced. The Rand value is the student years amount for each Administration multiplied by the per student cost for the Administration. Since Grade level pass rates were available only for the DNE schools, these have been applied for all Administrations. This biases the cost estimates upward for the White Administration and downward for all those whose actual pass rates were lower than for the DNE schools. The transition rate estimates for the cycle cost calculation were obtained by comparing enrollment in each grade level in 1988 with the succeeding grade level's enrollment in 1989. The most serious problem here is that leaving the original Administration's schools is considered to represent dropping out of education; this is especially erroneous for the White schools, where many students left for education in private schools or outside Namibia.

Table 3.5 presents a summary of the cycle costs for 1989. Columns 1 to 4 list the cycle costs in years of education provided per graduate produced for each of the four

educational levels for each of the former Administrations. A graduate is defined as someone passing the end of year grading. If no students repeated or dropped out, and if all passed the grading, the cycle cost for each level would be 3 years (the number of years in each level of schooling).

Table 3.5

CYCLE COSTS IN YEARS AND IN RAND BY MAJOR LEVELS OF EDUCATION

ADMINISTRATION	CYCLE COST (IN YEARS OF EDUCATION PROVIDED)				CYCLE COST (IN RAND)			
	Jr.Prim	Sr.Prim	Jr. Sec	Sr. Sec	Jr. Prim	Sr.Prim	Jr.Sec	Jr.Sec
CAPRIVI	3.87	6.03	5.48	9.25	3,245	5,059	4,598	7,761
COLOURED	4.39	6.06	6.10	10.67	8,872	12,247	2,328	21,564
DAMARA	3.91	6.90	5.94	11.61	6,737	11,889	10,234	20,004
DNE	3.84	5.34	6.32	11.74	6,624	9,212	10,902	20,252
HERERO	4.04	5.42	6.81	14.35	6,375	8,553	10,746	22,644
KAVANGO	5.44	6.94	6.80	27.03	4,428	5,649	5,535	22,002
NAMA	3.86	5.97	6.69	18.72	6,094	9,355	10,483	29,334
OWAMBO	4.97	6.86	7.27	29.63	3,062	4,226	4,478	18,252
REHOBOTH	4.17	6.03	5.38	8.54	8,878	12,838	11,454	18,182
TSWANA	6.44	4.08	3.20	–	17,620	11,162	8,755	–
WHITE	4.34	6.47	5.69	6.67	22,156	33,029	29,044	34,050
TOTAL	4.65	6.51	6.55	14.38	5,515	7,721	7,768	17,055

SOURCE: Calculations made from data from the Department of Economic Affairs, the Department of National Education, and the Examinations Division, Ministry of Education, Culture, Youth and Sport.

For the Junior Primary level, cycle costs average 4.65 years for all of Namibia and range from 3.84 for DNE students to 4.97 for Owambos, 5.44 for Kavangos, and 6.44 for Tswanas. As was noted earlier, the 1988 to 1989 grade-to-grade transition rates are exaggerated for White students because some of them left Namibia to live or to study elsewhere. This makes the cycle cost higher than it would be for this group that actually has the lowest rates of attrition and repetition and the highest rates of graduation. Cycle costs for the Kavango and Owambo Administrations would be even higher, except that their largest attrition occurs in the very first year of school.

Cycle costs increase at the Senior Primary level to a national average of 6.51 years per graduate and range from 4.08 for Tswanas to 6.86 for Owambos, 6.90 for Damaras, and 6.94 for Kavangos. High cycle costs at one level can be followed by low cycle cost at

the next if the previous high costs were a result of a selection process or other factors that increase the probability for educational success at the subsequent level. However, the Kavango and Owambo show a discouraging pattern of continued high cycle cost throughout the first six years of schooling, and, in fact, this continues even within the secondary levels.

Interestingly, the cycle costs at the Junior Secondary level are approximately the same as for Senior Primary in terms of the national average (6.55 years). The range at this level now extends from a low of 3.20 years for the Tswanas to 6.80 for the Kavangos, 6.81 for the Hereros, and 7.27 for the Owambos. The Caprivians (5.48), the Rehoboths (5.38), and the Whites (5.69) were, with the Tswanas, the least expensive Administrations in terms of cycle costs measured in years at the Junior Secondary level.

To this point, the aggregate cycle costs for Namibia are high, but not unprecedented in terms of sub-Saharan Africa. However, the cycle costs for the Kavangos and the Owambos have a cumulative effect that is unusually large. Given the transition rates used for Table 3.5, one would predict that for a cohort of 100 students that begin in Sub A, nine years later the Std. 7 class would equal only 13.5 for the Owambos and 9.4 for the Kavangos. This represents an enormous personal cost for these two populations and a substantial financial cost for the society.

The cycle costs for Senior Secondary schooling are startlingly large. The national average per graduate from this level is 14.38 years and ranges from a low of 6.67 for the Whites to 18.72 for Namas, 27.03 for Kavangos, and 29.63 for Owambos. It is important to remember that the DNE pass rate for Std. 10 was used in these calculations; while school-based pass rates were not available for the other Administrations, it is fair to assume (given the Std. 10 external examination results reported in Table 3.4) that pass rates for the Kavangos and the Owambos were lower and, therefore, the actual cycle costs even higher for Senior Secondary than are shown in Table 3.5.

Columns 5 to 8 in the table indicate the cycle costs expressed in Rand. These figures exaggerate the relative cycle cost for primary versus secondary education because a single unit cost (taken from Table 3.1) was used for each Administration for all levels of education. Secondary schooling costs more than primary schooling and, therefore, the primary cycle cost is relatively overstated by these estimates. The comparisons made among the Administrations at each level are, however, still valid indicators of relative costs.

Because of its significantly higher unit cost, the White Administration is, across all four levels, the most expensive. The low unit costs in Kavango and Owambo keep their cycle costs in Rand relatively low except at the two secondary levels. However, educational wastage at the scale that it occurs in these two Administrations is socially expensive, whatever the cost in Rand. Of note is the fact that the Caprivians are the only group to combine low cycle costs in years with a low unit cost in Rand. By these indicators, Caprivi was the most "efficient" Administration.

Overall, the cycle data indicate two distinct forms of inefficiency. The White Administration appears inefficient in that it spends more per student than is required to produce the present number of graduates at each level. The Kavango and Owambo Ad-

ministrations (and, to a lesser extent, the other non-White Administrations except for Caprivi) are inefficient in that their low unit costs are offset by high rates of attrition, repetition, and academic failure. As the quality of the unified educational system is upgraded, repetition and attrition problems should be ameliorated. However, as long as educational quality is defined primarily in terms of high failure rates, the Namibian educational system will remain both inefficient and inequitable.

A special efficiency and equity issue not discussed elsewhere is the problem of overage students. Every Administration, except that of the Whites, faces a serious problem with overage students at most levels (this was indicated earlier in Table 2.2). In Owambo, almost one-half of Sub A students are over age 7 and almost 800 are over the age of 14. The most serious problems occur at Stds. 2 - 4 because the high levels of repetition at these grades combine with existing overage student numbers to create a major pedagogical and administrative challenge. It is important to remember that the teachers who have to face this challenge are the same ones who lack the required subject matter and professional training to be qualified for the positions they hold.

The external efficiency issues are not easily analyzed. From what is known, however, it is possible to assert that Std. 10 leavers are excellent in quality, but are produced at too high a financial and personal cost to be considered the products of an efficient process. The same can be said for those who graduate from Primary and Junior Secondary education. A major policy research need is to examine the ability of these latter two groups of graduates to adapt themselves to the needs of the economy and of their communities and regions. The effects of these school leavers (and of those who do not graduate) on health, population, agriculture, small enterprise activity, and political participation needs to be documented if these effects are specified as objectives of the school system. It is quite possible that the major external efficiency of Namibian education lies as much in these areas as in formal employment.

SUMMARY ISSUES

As was noted at the beginning, the concerns with equity and efficiency are interwoven in Namibian education. A major inequity that disadvantaged children face is that they are subjected to an educational system that is inefficient in so many aspects. When operational inefficiency in the use of available resources is combined with systematic underfunding of schools for the majority population, the result is a convergence of barriers to quality results: less funds, fewer and poorer quality teachers, fewer and less appropriate instructional materials, and facilities that are more scarce relative to need and often of dramatically inferior condition. When these factors combine with educational disadvantages in the home and local communities, even the high demand for and respect of education found among the majority population cannot prevent the substantial educational failure in meeting the goals of access and retention equity and learning effectiveness.

The results reported here point to the need for a priority concern with the education of students in the Caprivi, Kavango, and Owambo regions. Consistently, these three groups appear as the least equitably treated among the Namibian population. The effects of history and the resulting local attitudes toward education have helped the Caprivians

achieve more in educational outcomes than their access to resources would have suggested was probable. This fact offers support for the belief that with a more equitable distribution of resources, increased efficiency could promote greater equity for these presently disadvantaged areas. The next Chapter analyzes Government's present plans to increase efficiency and reduce inequity in the educational system.

CHAPTER FOUR

ADDRESSING EQUITY AND EFFICIENCY ISSUES

INTRODUCTION

The MOE's recently released document, *Change With Continuity: Education Reform Directive – 1990*, presents the most recent outline of the Ministry's plans for dealing with the educational challenges of Namibia. This report, in comprehensive and articulate terms, indicates the major policy issues identified by the Ministry, lists the priority areas for education initiatives, and summarizes the implications of these plans for resource procurement, allocation, and utilization.

This Chapter will review these issues, priority areas, and resource implications in terms of their impact on the equity and efficiency concerns identified earlier. The purpose will be to present an external and, one hopes, objective analysis of the linkage between the Ministry's goals and its plans.

MAJOR POLICY ISSUES

Change With Continuity identifies 20 broad policy issue areas with which the Ministry must be concerned. These are:

* School desegregation and integration
* Access and utilization of excess space
* Order in school
* Language policy
* School fees
* Government-aided schools
* Assessment and examinations
* Attendance, punctuality and time management
* Community participation
* The teaching profession
* Private schools
* Co-curricular activities
* School sports
* Culture
* Resource utilization
* The role of NGOs
* Learners and school life
* Bursaries
* Youth

- Adult and nonformal education

Each of these policy areas involves implications for the Ministry's equity and efficiency goals and some are specifically designed to deal with these issues. The equity issue can be seen as spanning all of the areas mentioned above.

The policy areas identified may be summarized under five major headings:

1. Educational management
2. Finance and resource mobilization
3. Internal efficiency
4. Instructional content and context
5. External efficiency

The educational management category includes the school integration/desegregation activities, issues related to order (i.e., discipline) in schools, the relationships with government-aided and private schools, the assessment and examinations system, and the concerns with teacher professionalism. An important consideration in this category is how best to promote partnerships with the non-government school sector. Partial Government financial support for these schools may be justified as a way of leveraging public funds through concomitant private support. However, the formulas for doing this must be carefully designed to assure a maintenance of private effort, i.e., Government funds should complement, not substitute for private contributions. Government also must articulate what rules and regulations apply in Government-aided and private schools in addition to the Constitution's prohibitions of both discrimination and the apartheid ideology.

The creation of Namibian control over the content and conduct of examinations is an especially important activity. These examinations are, at present, the determining force for curriculum, instructional materials, classroom management and teacher training. The Government intends that the concerns within the management category be dealt with so as to support its equity and efficiency goals. As these management issues are transformed into more specific Government plans, these two goals should be among the major criteria used in the assessing the actual action steps to be taken in the area of educational management.

Finance and resource mobilization issues include school fees, community participation, the role of NGOs and the availability of bursaries. One means of broadening access and enhancing educational quality is to generate new funds. Given the Government's limitation on reallocating funds to the needs of the disadvantaged population, increasing new sources of funds is an especially critical concern.

School fund fees and hostel charges remain necessary if educational and support services are to be provided to a wider range of individuals. While these funds are controlled at the school level, the Ministry will monitor these accounts both for actuarial purposes and to assure they do not become a barrier to educational access or retention. School fund fees are not included in the aggregate estimates of the MOE's income and expenditure.

Community participation is an important means of mobilizing both human and financial resources to support education. The establishment of school boards for all schools should improve school relationships with the families and communities and help promote effective learning environments for children. The communities also have an important role to play in improvement, expansion, and maintenance of school facilities. At present, communities play this role only in certain areas; this role has been very important for communities working with non-Government schools.

A strong role for NGOs in education is essential if a true educational partnership is to exist in Namibia. NGOs exist not just as sources for funds or voluntary human capital support – they have a unique role to play in promoting innovation and community responsiveness and in supporting educational management. An unresolved issue is whether NGOs will continue to receive external funding, for example, from church organizations, to support schooling programs.

The provision of bursaries at all levels of education is commendable, but should be based both on merit and financial need. Financial assistance given to the economically advantaged child does not have an effect on human capital development. Successful students can be recognized in non-financial ways; government funds should be reserved for those situations where the resources make a significant difference in an individual's ability to continue education.

In many cases, it is the hostel not the school fee that is a potential barrier to educational participation. While the school sometimes can forego the school fund fee, the food costs are so large that it is hard for the school manager to waive this charge. Also, while both fees may be affordable for one or even two children, the disadvantaged family with multiple children in school at one time must be considered for explicit financial assistance if all children are to receive an equitable access opportunity. A final, longer term consideration is whether a school feeding program is necessary for non-boarding students. At present, the educational and financial impacts of such a program have not been estimated.

Policy issues that fall within the *internal efficiency* category are access and utilization of excess space, attendance, punctuality and time management, and resource utilization. By asking that no normal classroom accommodate less than 25 students, the Ministry promotes the multiple aims of an efficient use of resources, increased integration, and reduction in the inequitable access to the best teachers. Also, the use of double sessions (and the use of schools as adult education centres) can be an interim means of meeting excess educational demand and an appropriate strategy that conserves facility resources to be used in areas where *no* formal education currently takes place.

Educational research has drawn attention to the importance of time as an instructional resource. The emphasis on timeliness and attendance is a welcome one and is necessary to assure that the sacrifices made by Namibian citizens to finance education are justified in terms of school learning. Time management is important both for teachers and students: curricular strategies must not treat either teacher or student time as a "free good" which can be expended without proper care. However, rigid approaches to time

management (including the fragmentation of instructional time into excessively small units) can be counter productive.

The final issue in this category is resource utilization--this is a broad topic area and will be returned to later in this Chapter. It should be recognized here that the Ministry has developed a pragmatic view of resource issues. The Ministry recognizes that every policy alternative "has a financial implication". What is needed to support this pragmatism is a means and a capacity to identify these implications. The change in the MOE budget to a data base structure that allows analysis by input types and by levels and forms of education will improve the means for this type of work. A capacity for this work already exists, but additional analysts who are trained specifically in policy analysis will be a rapidly emerging area of need for the Ministry.

The instructional content and context category includes the issues of language policy, co-curricular activities, school sports, culture, and learners and school life. The establishment of English as the official language of instruction will have important long-term benefits for Namibia in terms of international communication and partnerships. The Ministry is easing the transition to English by continuing the use of home languages in lower primary (where desired by parents), using the home language where necessary for communication with parents, and assuring a full range of language subject offerings, especially at the secondary level. This is an equitable means to achieve the stated goal; the major efficiency question is whether the English competencies of teachers can be improved rapidly enough to meet the instructional demands of the language policy. Once English competency is assured, further savings will be available because of the greater ease in reallocating teachers and the reduced costs (because of larger numbers) in textbook production.

The availability of school sports and co-curricular activities has been an inequitable situation in much of Namibia. Such activities, when combined with the Ministry's cultural agenda, are not an educational luxury, but are an integral part of Namibia's "Education for All" concept. Because of this, it is important that these activities not be restricted primarily to urban and/or advantaged schools but be extended throughout the new unified educational system.

The Ministry's recognition of the rights and responsibilities of learners within school life is an appropriate one. There is an immediate need to focus the attention of teachers and administrators on the *needs of students*. The role of students and student organizations should be one of developing effective partnerships with school management to safeguard student interests and to promote the shared goals of equity and efficiency.

The final category of school issues is that of external efficiency. The direct external responsibility of the school is to prepare better citizens, parents, and workers. Two specific areas of external focus in the Ministry are programs for youth and adult and non-formal education. In both cases, these programs promote equity by providing learning opportunities for those who previously did not benefit from the formal education system. External efficiency concerns are addressed because these programs are targeted for training in leadership, entrepreneurial skills, civic life, and the multiple social effects of basic education such as health, population, and community development. A continuing exter-

nal efficiency concern is the ability of formal schooling to produce graduates with relevant attitudes and skills at an affordable and reasonable level of cost.

PRIORITY AREAS

The 20 policy issues identified in *Change with Continuity* will be dealt with by the MOE in terms of eight priority areas:

1. Improvement of historically disadvantaged schools
2. In-service teacher training
3. Expansion and broadening of primary schools
4. Development of teacher housing
5. Development of the NIED
6. Learning materials development
7. Adult and nonformal education
8. Sports and culture

The first of these areas is the broadest. Improvement of these schools will require upgrading of teachers, increasing the number of teachers, improving the supply and relevance of instructional materials, expanding and improving facilities, and strengthening managerial and supervisory support services.

Upgrading of teachers and increasing their numbers is an activity with important educational effects, but no less important financial implications. In-service training of the existing cadre of teachers *can* be important, but careful planning and implementation of such plans must be done; in-service training activities have the propensity to absorb extensive amounts of resources without any assurance that the interests of school children will be better served. Teacher housing similarly involves direct financial burdens, but there simply may be no other means to induce the better teachers to work in the rural areas where there is the greatest need for their skills.

Improving the supply and relevance of instructional materials has previously been discussed as a key concern. This will be a major area of responsibility for the NIED. The three activities of curriculum reform, instructional materials adaptation, and teacher training must be parts of a coordinated whole. The current Junior Secondary curricular reform, whatever its good intentions, has not yet developed this integrated strategy. Perhaps, once the haste of the present period is past, a fuller consideration of the priority need for more appropriate learning materials and for supportive forms of teacher training will be made.

Expanding and improving educational facilities is a necessary, but insufficient, part of any educational reform. The Ministry's plans in this regard--to focus new building activities in the disadvantaged areas and to use a lower-cost, inexpensive maintenance structure--are appropriate to the nation's needs and its resources. However, in the short term, even less expensive alternatives may be necessary to achieve extended access of students to the two primary levels and to the lower secondary level where most of the educational expansion should take place in the next decade.

Extending primary education to seven years has some immediate benefits. It broadens the scale of the initial education cycle and may make it easier to justify certain school locations in terms of the number of potential students in the immediate area. It will postpone for one year the hostel cost of students who must board in order to attend Junior Secondary education. It also can promote external efficiency by increasing the assurance that primary school graduates have mastered literacy and numeracy skills. The only offsetting concern is whether the teachers available will be able to offer the quality of Grade 7 previously maintained in the Junior Secondary schools.

The use of hostels to improve access and increase retention is an overt part of the Ministry's policy to improve equity. Without hostel accommodations, many rural children could not attend secondary education and, in some cases, even primary education. Also, the feeding programs and study discipline provided by the hostels are a positive factor in keeping otherwise disadvantaged students in school and making academic progress. While the appropriate level of costs and the form of cost sharing with parents are subject to debate, hostels will remain a required component of an equitable educational strategy in much of Namibia.

Managerial and supervisory tasks and the appropriateness of current staffing levels were discussed earlier in Chapter Three. A specific question relative to efficiency is whether the use of subject specialists (especially in the numbers proposed for 1991) is cost effective. Many individuals have questioned whether the costs of the school visits by subject specialists are offset by any improvement in the quality of teaching. The decisions to be made about in-service training must consider the appropriate role for these individuals, and for the school inspectors, in any teacher upgrading program.

RESOURCE IMPLICATIONS

The Ministry has listed the following criteria for resource utilization:

* Standards will be maintained in traditionally advantaged schools
* New resources will be directed to previously disadvantaged schools

The areas of educational activity, in addition to formal education, that will receive priority attention are:

* Special education
* Agriculture in education
* Pre-vocational skills and polytechnic education
* Vocational and technical education
* Educational administration and management
* Examinations and assessments.

Educational administration and management and examinations and assessments have already been discussed. The other four priority areas, not listed in terms of relative importance, all represent attempts to improve the equity or external efficiency of Namibian education. Special education programs will be designed to serve the interests of these spe-

cially disadvantaged students in a manner that responds to their profound needs in an effective manner and at reasonable costs.

The introduction of agriculture into the education curriculum is appropriate, given the nature of Namibia's economy and the employment futures of many of the students. Similarly, pre-vocational skills can be imparted effectively within the traditional classroom. Also, polytechnic education, of appropriate size and unit cost, can help meet Namibia's emerging need for technical skills.

Making vocational education a priority is more worrisome. Throughout the developing world, the success of formal vocational education has depended upon the receptiveness and support (in terms of finances and instructional personnel) of the private sector and the perceived status of the vocational occupations. A rapid development of such training in Namibia appears premature relative to need. To meet what need exists, private firms should be encouraged to provide their own training. If Government support is deemed necessary, such programs would be a more appropriate activity for the Ministry's Nonformal Education Department working in concert with the NGOs and the private sector.

The development of vocational education and training, wherever it occurs, must consider the effect of the structure and content of these activities on student attitudes and orientations in regard to the formal wage economy. Students should be encouraged to have a positive but realistic perception of vocational and technical jobs. Also, it should be remembered that higher order skills should be developed in these students so that their future job possibilities extend beyond entry-level occupations and journeyman trades. Finally, here as in all education, rural children and girls in all areas must have their career horizons expanded and not foreclosed by the schooling opportunities offered to them. The most vocationally relevant skills in Namibia today are literacy, numeracy and adaptive abilities. Formal schooling, properly structured, can produce these skills at lower costs than any of the proposed vocational schemes.

SUMMARY

The indicative plans of the Namibia Government, as articulated in *Change with Continuity*, are consistent with the goals of increasing equity and enhancing efficiency. The activities proposed are generally realistic in terms of their objectives but problematic in terms of their cost and recurrent resource implications. Where questions have been raised (e.g., about in-service teacher training, the Junior Secondary curriculum reform, or vocational education), they are offered in line with the Minister's call for "consultation and involvement". The Government's commitment to educational change, reform and renewal appears to be sincere and broadly supported. This is critical, because only through this commitment can the burdens of inequity and inefficiency be lifted and the potential of Namibia's future be assured. One major area that is not now listed as a priority, but which will require greater long term attention than it presently is given, is that of preschool education. The data indicate that such opportunities are limited in number; observation and discussion with Ministry personnel indicate the opportunities are most frequently available for the more urban and more advantaged population. Research

strongly suggests that educational equity can be much more easily achieved if children begin school on a more equal basis. Differences in communities and in individual homes can be offset in part by a more common preschool learning experience.

Such programs also allow society to deal with the other preconditions to schooling such as health, nutrition, and attitudes toward learning. While the priorities mentioned in *Change with Continuity* are appropriate and do, by themselves, offer substantial challenges to Government, it is a policy responsibility of Government to begin now the exploration of longer term issues such as student health, school feeding programs, and, most importantly perhaps, pre-primary education. However, the current agenda will begin the work of achieving equity and the Government's indicative plans in this regard are very encouraging and deserve support.

CHAPTER FIVE

ISSUES IN CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Schooling is unavoidably a selection mechanism which decides who will be able to compete for economic, social and other opportunities. Trying to change the rules of that process is problematic in any society, but particularly so in one where education has been explicitly used to reinforce a policy of social and economic inequities based on race. Nevertheless, that is the challenge faced by Namibia today.

The evolving nature of schools and instruction in independent Namibia is being shaped by two major perspectives. First, there is the ideology, the experience from the decades in exile, and the resultant goals and ideals for education held by the returning SWAPO leaders and their followers. Second, those who have never left Namibia, but have spent much of their lives working and living within the context of the existing educational system, exert a strong conservative force which reflects their experience and beliefs. The tension between these perspectives, and its many variants on both sides, will likely be characteristic of the environment in Namibian education for a number of years and will shape the debate as to what is meant by an "effective" education system.

There is a common, but generally unstated, assumption that to fix or improve education in Namibia one should basically extend the model which exists in the former White Administration to the other regions as resources permit. The problem is usually framed in terms of bringing the rest of the system up to the "norm" or "standards" found in the White and the Coloured Administrations. That model is assumed to embody the definition of the best kind of education. The November 1990 policy statement of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Youth and Sport states that an integrated version of the White model will be continued at the current level, while additional revenues as they emerge will be used to move the other schools along the path toward that model.

While there is strong support for curricular change, pedagogic improvement and new more cost-effective approaches, advocates of such innovations must overcome the distrust present in many parts of Namibian society. Any differentiation in educational models can be viewed as discriminatory and intended to reduce the chances of non-whites to obtain equal quality education. Whites also can be trapped by the fear that changes to make the system more relevant to cultural and economic realities of non-whites will inevitably lower the quality of their education, even though much of their own system is outmoded and dysfunctional in a modern, independent Namibia. The challenge for Namibia's educators is to develop a new education system which both addresses the concerns of all Namibians, including the distrust inherited from past experiences, and provides an appropriate, affordable and equitable preparation for Namibia's future.

SCHOOL CURRICULA

The problem faced by Namibian educators is not solely the injustice of the apartheid system and the very unequal distribution of resources that resulted, but equally the old-fashioned, rigid curriculum and examination system imposed upon Namibia. South Africa, and therefore most Namibians of all races, has been relatively isolated for several decades from the developments in educational methods and philosophies in other parts of the world.

The Current Situation. The curricula in use in Namibia at the time of independence are a direct result of the history of education in Namibia. The German colonial administration, and subsequently the South African government focused almost exclusively on providing for the educational needs of the White community. Small-scale efforts to educate non-whites by missionary groups were tolerated, but they had little impact. When some government efforts to educate indigenous peoples emerged in the 1950's, it was in the context of South African apartheid, and the Bantu Education curriculum of South Africa was implemented in Namibia. At the end of 1977, the Bantu Education system was officially replaced with the Cape Province Syllabus to provide a common curriculum for the different population groups. With the promulgation of the 1980 National Education Act and Proclamation AG 8 in 1980, education was no longer divided only along racial lines, but also along ethnic and tribal lines as well, each group with its own, theoretically independent education authority.

The Cape Province curriculum is rooted in the British education efforts in South Africa from 100 years ago, subsequently adapted to provide a "suitable" education for the subordinate role envisioned for non-whites under apartheid. Some minor adjustments have been made in the syllabi for Namibia, mainly to reflect the realities of language use (three external languages - Afrikaans, German and English) in Namibia. At the Upper Primary and Junior Secondary level there was some adaptation as well in the content of the history and geography, although most of the adaptation occurred for schools run by either the DNE or the White Administration. In all cases, the curriculum, syllabus, and examination procedures were highly specified, rigidly controlled and administered from a central authority – to an extent unknown in most other parts of Africa or the world.

All aspects of the curricula, syllabi, testing and marking are mandated in considerable detail by regulations published in various issues of the *Gazette of the Examination Board for South West Africa*. Current regulations are promulgated in issues of the *Gazette* from the mid-1980's. A detailed summary of the curricular specifications is reproduced in Appendices VI.3 - VI.18 of the 1989 Unesco/UNDP report, "Education in Namibia."

The curriculum for Junior Primary (3 years) contains four promotion subjects (First & Second Language, Mathematics and Writing) which consume 70% of the time (76% in Standard 1) of the time and five non-promotion subjects. (Bible, Art and Physical Education, Class Music and Environment Study).

Senior Primary (3 years) consists of eight promotion subjects (First and Second Language, Math, Geography, History, General Science, Health Education and Writing) which

occupy 80% of the timetable for all standards, and four non-promotion subjects, identical to Junior Primary minus the environment study. A typical timetable for a primary school shows 10 thirty-minute periods per day. (For example, one former Nama administration school schedule began at 7:30AM and finished at 12:40PM, with a single 10 minute break at 11:00 for a total of 10 periods a day -- fifty a week.)

The Junior Secondary curriculum (3 years) is more complex, with different patterns for two- and three-language schools, and different subjects and time allotments for each of Standards 5, 6 and 7. The general pattern is eight promotional subjects (First & Second Language, Math, General Science, History, Geography and a choice of two optional subjects) which occupy 74% of the time in Standard 5 and 82% in Standards 6 & 7, and six non-promotional subjects (Bible, Physical and Book Education, Class Music, and Youth and School Guidance). Most of the adaptation of the Cape curriculum at this level involves the languages and the resulting adjustments to the timetable.

At the Senior Secondary (3 years) level, the curriculum is nearly identical to the South African curriculum except for local language options (German, Lozi, Ndonga, and Kwanyama can be taken as examination subjects) and is completely controlled by the examination syllabi for matriculation. The examination requires students to pass subjects in groups as follows: two languages in Group A which contains official languages; and four other subjects chosen from Group B (Mathematics); Group C (Physical Science or Biology); Group D (languages other than the official languages); Group E (History, Geography, Economics, or Bible Study) and Group F (a list of nearly forty subjects, including all the various practical subjects, as well as Music, Literature, and Art). Any given school will offer only a small fraction of the subjects, particularly those in Group F.

Curriculum Policy and Reform Since Independence. The objectives and content for a reformed curriculum in Namibia are set out in summary form in the January 1990 document, "The National Integrated System for Emergent Namibia" (pp. 9-13).

At the Primary level,(grades I to VI in this document, although the November 1990 policy statement provides for seven years of primary education), the new curriculum guidelines appear to reduce the time spent on languages (from about 40% to 25%), to teach Math and science instead of just Math, and to add Social Studies. The total number of 30 minute periods is reduced from 50 to 40 (the old Sub-standard A and B were 40, and Standards 1-4 were 50), implying fewer but longer periods. (Nothing is said explicitly about the length of instructional time, although in other documents there is an expressed desire to increase the amount of instructional time, in part by going to three terms of 13 weeks each. Plans for 1991 appear to keep the 4 quarter schedule, however.)

For Junior Secondary level, the new guidelines standardize the treatment of language so that all students are studying English and their home language. There apparently will be no three-language schools. The number of periods per week is reduced slightly from 50 to 46 as well. Overall, the pattern of subjects and time allotted to them doesn't seem changed very much.

At the Senior Secondary level, the major change seems to be that only one language, English is required. Other languages will be available on an option basis, but will not be

required. Time saved from the study of other languages is shared among the other subjects for a total of 40 periods per week.

As of January 1991, only the Junior Secondary curriculum will have been modified from the old Cape curriculum in force at independence. The Ministry has chosen to focus its first curriculum reform efforts at the Junior Secondary level because the number of schools and pupils involved is limited and the changes in the curriculum are not too extensive. A crash program to develop revised syllabi and materials was undertaken during the last part of 1990. The new curriculum is to be implemented in English medium in the first year of Junior Secondary School at the beginning of the new school year in January 1991. Much controversy has resulted from the rapid introduction of the new curriculum and the decision to ask all schools to teach the curriculum in English. It remains to be seen how well the new Ministry structure will cope with this significant logistical and training challenge.

The subject committees were instructed to use the Loudima curriculum as the basis for their work, along with the existing Cape curriculum and the Cambridge syllabus as further references. The Loudima curriculum was developed at SWAPO's Loudima school in Brazzaville in collaboration with the Namibia Association of Norway. The new Junior Secondary curriculum which emerged from that process, judging by the syllabi, bears more resemblance to the existing curriculum in Namibia than it does to the one used in Loudima.

The new curriculum reduces the proportion of the timetable devoted to languages from 34% to 26% and shifts emphasis a little toward science from math, but keeps their combined proportion at 28%. The major change is the addition of a series of pre-vocational options grouped into five skill groups: Domestic, Commercial, Agricultural, Arts and Technical which are to comprise 20% of the timetable. There will still be 50 periods of 35 minutes duration. A Junior Secondary Reform Task Force was put in place in the Fall of 1990 to develop and implement this reform.

The intention of the curriculum reform is to upgrade the importance and availability of pre-vocational options, to decrease the emphasis on learning multiple languages (although the introduction of English as a new medium of instruction will certainly offset any shift there in the short run), and of course to move toward Namibia-specific and relevant content in history, geography and life skills courses. Unstated in the general guidelines, but clearly a major objective, is to begin the lengthy process of mental decolonization away from the images of an inferior and separate people which permeated the old curriculum and pedagogy. More detailed analysis of the syllabi and of the curriculum as implemented will be needed to assess the likelihood that the new objectives can be achieved under the conditions existing in most schools.

Another aspect of the new reform is the assessment procedures which are spelled out in detail. The current draft of those rules suggests that in fact more rather than fewer pupils are likely to fail and not be promoted to the next grade. The rules indicate that **every** promotion subject must be passed in contrast to the old rules where an aggregated score was used which would allow strong passes to offset some failures in other subjects.

Changes may still be made in these rules when the consequences of their implementation become clearer.

Issues for Discussion. A series of policy issues in curriculum reform are worth mentioning here as points that will require attention.

a. **Intended versus implemented curriculum.** Along with reforming the curriculum must go a more realistic assessment of the abilities of both pupils and teachers to make use of the learning materials under the conditions which exist in most schools. Materials and methods which are instructionally effective under average conditions must be created and used. The approaches used in the best schools are not transferable to the majority of schools in Namibia.

b. **Beginning reforms at Junior Secondary level.** What are the educational consequences of not starting reforms at the primary level? Pupils moving from six/seven years of primary education under the old curriculum may not have either the skills or the attitudes needed to make effective use of the new curriculum.

c. **Language in the curriculum.** The impact in the short run of moving to English medium instruction will likely overshadow other reforms needed to reduce the amount of time spend on language learning. Language learning objectives need to shift toward communication and utilization and away from memorization of formal rules of grammar and academic characteristics of language.

d. **Fragmentation of Subjects.** All of the curricula reflect the spiral approach to education, where all subjects are carried at each level, but with increasing depth and extent of content at higher levels. The result is a highly fragmented curriculum with pupils having to cope with large numbers of seemingly separate topics at once. Thus there are nominally 12 subjects at Primary level and 14 subjects at each grade of Junior Secondary. Given scarce learning resources some simplification and integration of the curriculum seems highly desirable.

e. **Junior Secondary Schooling.** Is Junior Secondary schooling going to become part of primary education, leading to eventual compulsory nine years for all children? Or should Junior Secondary schools be attached to senior secondary schools to take advantage of better staff and equipment which can be shared?

TEACHERS AND TEACHER PREPARATION

The Current Situation. The conventional wisdom with regard to teachers and their preparation in Namibia can be summarized as follows:

* There is significant inequality in the distribution of properly qualified teachers across the former ethnic administrations.
* The great majority (8,701 out of 12,885 in 1989) are under- or unqualified and need to be upgraded to the proper qualification for the level at which they are teaching.

* There is a need for at least 1000 new teachers a year to replace those leaving and to respond to population growth.
* The present teacher training curricula are too academic and need to be reoriented toward practical teaching skills and the realities of life in the classroom.
* In-service education is best provided by expansion of the system of subject-advisors, who travel to schools and by formal upgrading offered either through correspondence courses or by vacation courses.

Each of the above statements need to be re-examined in light of alternative perspectives.

There is much confusion between teacher competencies and teacher qualifications, and no systematic evidence about the ways in which qualified teachers are better than those without proper qualifications. A number of officials commented that teachers who lacked formal qualifications often were more motivated and effective. The qualifications are heavily based on obtaining matric-level passes and even the professional component is excessively academic with little or no opportunity for classroom observation or practice teaching. There is little evidence supporting the assumption that training contained in current patterns of certification represent useful norms which predict classroom performance and resultant pupil learning.

The hidden curriculum in the qualification courses reflects a strictly controlled and rigidly prescribed syllabus, texts and teaching methodology. Most qualified teachers lack experience with taking initiative to adapt to pupils' needs and abilities, have had no encouragement or models for creative classroom activity, and have little experience in working with supplementary materials outside of the study guides which form the backbone of the teacher training syllabus and courses. One document produced by experienced observers (Callewaert & Kallós) comments on the study guides in these terms: "...we regard these texts as unusable in the future and even today." The problem may thus lie as much with the nature and content of the qualification process as it does with the fact that many practicing teachers lack these qualifications. Large scale efforts to qualify teachers with current certification programs would be a step in the wrong direction, moving away from preparing the kind of teachers needed for independent Namibia.

The distribution of teacher qualifications by regions is a direct result of policy decisions made prior to independence. Access to teacher training institutions was severely restricted, particularly in the North. Around 1981 the three training colleges in the North were no longer allowed to offer the Junior Secondary Teaching Certificate because they were felt to have inadequate staff and facilities. Instead, they were all converted to the Education Certificate Primary (ECP), a qualification for primary level requiring Standard 8 for entrance. As a result, no training for teachers above the primary level was available north of Windhoek. The graduates with the ECP were the only newly-qualified teachers available in the North and were in most cases posted to Junior or even Senior Secondary school positions. Primary schools were staffed by those with lower or no teaching qualifications. Access to higher level training in Windhoek was extremely limited, both by the need to meet rigid entrance qualifications and by the need to obtain a bursary and to travel great distances to enter courses. The effect was to deny access to qualifica-

tion courses to nearly all candidates from the part of the country which contained two-thirds of all the pupils.

Assessing the future demand for teachers is problematic at best. Current enrollment totals have been virtually stagnant in the regions with the highest populations due to war conditions and the turbulence associated with the transition to independence. With no usable population figures and little predictability in the internal flow rates of pupils between grades, projections in the immediate future are difficult. Little is known about the reservoir of potential teachers who are not currently employed. Officials in northern regions report that there is no problem finding or keeping teachers as there are few other employment opportunities for educated people. Teacher attrition appears to be minimal and although the population as a whole is believed to be growing, enrollments are not (not even so far as the result of the return of large numbers of people from exile, although unusual bulges in some standards have resulted from returnees). In short, large investments in pre-service capacity would be premature. Much more attention needs to be paid to distribution of access to pre-service training, particularly for secondary level teachers in the North. Some redistribution of existing teachers should also be considered so that pupil/teacher ratios are more consistent across different regions.

The system of inspectors and subject advisors, which is relatively well- developed in the former White Administration and in DNE is expensive and impractical for teachers in the remainder of the country. Having high- salaried subject advisors travel to individual schools and work with small numbers of teachers in their subject area, or run workshops for larger numbers in teacher centers in regional capitals, will not meet the extensive needs of poorly-trained teachers for regular support and training in both content and methodologies needed for new curricula. Mindlessly expanding the model existing in the expensive, higher quality administrations will never be effective in meeting the needs of the other areas. The proposed staffing level for the MOE already reflects this thinking, however, with a planned increase in the number of subject advisors from 181 (mostly in DNE and the non-black administrations) to 330 at an estimated additional annual cost of 6 million Rands. A complete rethinking of models of in-service training and ongoing support for teachers is required, particularly at the primary level.

Plans for Teacher Education. There was general dissatisfaction with the state of both the pre- and in-service teacher education programs in place at the time of independence. Several reform proposals have been generated internally and external agencies have made proposals of their own. The MOE's new policy directive, "*Change with Continuity,*" of November 1990, explicitly indicates that the work of SIDA in pre-service education and UNDP/Unesco for in-service education will provide the basis on which the government will proceed with reforms. In the meantime, the MOE is also proceeding with the implementation of two new certificate programs for Primary and Junior Secondary teachers under the auspices of the Academy in Windhoek.

Pre-service Training. The current qualification for Primary teaching, the Education Certificate Primary (ECP) will be phased out starting in January 1991. The course will continue to be offered through Distance Education until 1995 to allow those wanting to complete the qualification to do so. The ECP provided two years of training after Stand-

ard 8, divided between an academic component, which required the student to achieve 5 matric passes, and a professional component. The components were done simultaneously with students tending to focus on one component and often failing the other. Many students entered the program because they saw it as a second chance to obtain a matric pass and not because they had any interest in becoming teachers. Training for Junior and Senior Secondary level was offered only in Windhoek (until January 1991), or by correspondence study, or outside Namibia.

The MOE and staff from the Academy, along with representatives from the other Teacher Colleges (such consultation of the teacher training institutions is a radical shift from past behavior and a much needed step in the right direction), have designed two new pre-service teaching certificates. The National Education Certificate (NEC) admits Standard 8 completers or those with Standards 6 or 7 plus several years of teaching experience. This provides a previously unavailable upgrading option for the many untrained primary teachers now teaching in the schools. The course requires three years, including a substantially expanded period of observation and practice in schools. It also removes the controversial requirement of obtaining passes at the matric level, but still devotes considerable time to the upgrading the content knowledge of the trainees. A second course, the National Higher Education Certificate (NHEC), admits those with Standard 10 passes for a two year program. At least two of the colleges in the North (Ongwediva & Katima Mulilo) will be allowed to offer the NHEC beginning in January of 1991. Rundu and possibly the others will offer the NEC.

The first part of the SIDA proposal, based on consultant visits in August of 1989, is quite critical of existing programs of pre-service training and raised issues which would apply to the NEC and NHEC as currently envisioned. A second more detailed report based on consultant team visit in November of 1990 is due by February 1991. The SIDA team felt that the first priority was to deal with primary education and that in-service and pre-service training needed to be closely integrated to be effective. The teacher training curriculum must be directly linked to the realities of the school. They also stressed that substantial changes in teachers' attitudes and capabilities would be needed to effectively implement the content and the spirit of the Loudima curriculum.

Considerable uncertainty about the institutional structures for pre-service training exist and will not be resolved until after the work of the Commission on Tertiary Education, to be chaired by John Turner, which begins its work in February, 1991. If, as is currently proposed, all the teacher training colleges are given status as tertiary education institutions, then their structure and management will be subject to the recommendations of the Commission. In the past, the Academy has served as the accrediting and managing body for all teacher training courses in the country. What body will play this role in the future is very much up for discussion, with options such as the new NIED, the Ministry itself, and even some sort of regional SADCC body being considered. Likewise, the locus of control over content and examination of teacher certification courses will be under review.

In-service Training. Pre-independence practices of in-service education had three components. 1) Authorities that had subject advisors sent them to schools to work with teachers in their subject areas. They would also occasionally run workshops for groups of

teachers drawn from different schools. DNE, under contract to the three northern authorities, sent advisors periodically to run workshops at the Teacher Training Colleges. Sometimes there were courses offered in Windhoek for principals and department heads as well. 2) Teachers could make use of distance education courses to try to pass subjects at Standards 8 or 10 to upgrade their qualifications. 3) NGOs have been offering in-service courses to teachers in some areas. The Council of Churches of Namibia (CCN) has been particularly active in offering English language courses for teachers in the last several years and has expanded plans for such training in 1991.

UNDP/Unesco has sent a series of missions to deal with education in general, and in-service teacher training in particular. There is a multi-part UNDP document relating to in-service training. The first three parts were the result of a mission in June/July of 1990. Part four was produced by a mission in September/October of 1990. Part five, on implementation issues, was not available to the team.

The first three parts of the UNDP study focus on the teacher non-qualification problem, concluding that "virtually every serving teacher in Namibia will need re-training in one form or another." Part one of that report lays out a plan for training teacher educators needed to implement parts two and three. Part two contains a detailed proposal for the further training of approximately 3,000 teachers who are certified (and therefor assumed to be properly qualified for their roles). Part three lays out three options for the rapid upgrading, i.e., training for certification, of the remaining 9,000 unqualified teachers.

The October 1990 report refines and modifies the proposals, adding specific details about facilities, staffing, and costing and concluding with a draft Project Document for a UNDP/Unesco project to implement the proposal. The in- service training component is proposed as a nation-wide strategy which would take 9 cohorts, each with approximately 1,000 teachers, into a three-year upgrading program which would lead to primary or secondary school teaching certificates, depending on their entering qualifications, for all of them. Each cohort would pass through a three year sequence consisting of three parts: 1) An initial 12-week residential training program, 2) a 30-month teaching assignment, during which they would have a series of three vacation courses each year along with close supervision and a correspondence course, and 3) a final 12-week residential course to be examined and receive their certificates. This is a slightly modified version of the ZINTEC model used with some success starting at independence in Zimbabwe, although there it was mostly for new teachers, rather than for those already teaching in the schools.

Issues for Discussion. As can be seen from the partial description above, the current situation is very much in a state of flux, thus making it both difficult and inappropriate to make specific recommendations as to what should be done in teacher education and support.

a. **Teacher Training Content.** The design, content and level of the proposed teacher training certificates needs careful review. Content must take more fully into account new curricular designs being proposed, new goals for active, participatory classroom pedagogies, and the likely revised examination and promotion criteria.

b. **Academic and Professional Content.** A better balance must be found between the need to produce solid subject matter competence and reality-based professional skills that are directly usable by teachers when they enter classrooms. Specifically, how subject competence is recognized in relationship to matric qualifications must be addressed, with conscious awareness of its impact on the recruitment and retention of teachers in the market place. Bridging paths for upward entrance to higher qualifications need to be available.

c. **Pre-service; In-service Balance.** Careful thought is needed about the ratio of resources being devoted to pre-service versus in-service training of teachers. Pre-service training is an expensive activity with a long delay before it has much impact on learning in the schools. In-service, even intensive on-going varieties, is cheaper and can have immediate impact on classroom performance and pupil learning.

d. **Teacher Specialization**. Current practice of certifying teachers in only one or two subjects needs review, especially for primary teachers. Development of whole-class certification for primary teachers should be considered.

e. **Ongoing Support of Teachers.** While making necessary ad hoc arrangements for in-service training, a long-range plan for on-going institution building of a permanent in-service mechanism should be formulated. Otherwise various emergency approaches will leave Namibia with fragmented and marginal institutions which are not appropriate for an ongoing in-service training capacity. Ideally, there would be some integral linkage between the large in-service capacity and a much smaller pre-service training mechanism. Some significant modification of the ZINTEC model from Zimbabwe might be most relevant.

A more general concern, which is not restricted to teacher training, but has a strong impact on it, is the danger of short-term, expedient actions which have powerful, unanticipated longer term effects on the shape of teacher training in the future. A complete long-term plan for teacher education, patterns of certification, and institutional arrangements needs to be set out now which will provide targets for the first decade after independence. This is presumably the task of the Tertiary Education Commission. Yet some actions, like the introduction of new certificates (NEC & NHEC), are underway already, with the potential for setting the system off in the wrong direction. Likewise, the massive UNDP proposal (estimated to require a minimum of US$48 million just for direct costs) for in-service training needs careful rethinking before any movement toward implementation is undertaken. Issues of implied recurrent costs for sustainability, poor linkage to plans for ongoing in-service and pre-service training, grandiose structures, dependence on expensive expatriates, and so on, need to be addressed.

THE EXAMINATION SYSTEM

The Problem. There is widespread confusion that providing equality of opportunity means also that the system is equitable and fair. Thus providing all schools with the identi-

cal curriculum and having each child sit the same examination is felt to absolve society of any further responsibility. Poor performance by individuals, or even groups of individuals, is the result of their own shortcomings -- laziness or inferiority.

The fact that there is substantial inequality in terms of allocation of resources to schools is recognized as unjust and there is general agreement that a more equal distribution of resources is needed - as long as it doesn't diminish the resources available to the best schools. However, there is no general feeling that equal treatment is in fact unfair and must inevitably result in unequal and unfair results. To achieve equality of results, unequal treatment will be necessary to overcome decades of systematic oppression. A public dialogue and educational process for people of all races and communities will be needed to raise the level of understanding of this problem. (The USA has only partially succeeded in dealing with this issue.)

The examinations lie at the core of the issue of "standards" in schools. For decades, "standards" have been tantamount to educational discrimination. This has been justified by the apparent provision of equality of opportunity as just discussed. The rigid examination system, administered under tight central control, has resulted in a system where the vast majority of pupils fail at all levels in the name of "standards." The emphasis is on selecting out, each year from each class in the country, the small handful who will pass and labeling the remainder as failures who will be pushed out of the school system. Julius Nyerere in his seminal document, "Education for Self-Reliance," observed that the major output of the school system is large numbers of failures -- pupils who have been labeled by society as failures and who have internalized that judgement as well. "How can a new nation be built on the backs of failures?" he asked. Namibia faces the same challenge now. The examination and standards issue must be reexamined and set in terms of measuring and documenting success rather than in terms of establishing a single pass/fail line for every class and grade.

The Current Situation. The Examination Board for Namibia is charged with prescribing for all education below the tertiary level. The Board has the sole power to set minimum standards and requirements for all syllabi and courses of study, to create, set and mark all examinations, and to issue whatever certificates they deem desirable. In reality, the Board has total control over many significant aspects of schooling in Namibia.

The Board specifies, through periodic issues of the Gazette, and by course syllabi, a very detailed set of conditions for each subject at every grade level. Little is left to local initiative, either for administrators or for teachers at the classroom level. An extreme example of this occurs for teacher training -- which is also controlled by the Examination Board-- where the study guides produced to provide staff of training colleges with material to support the syllabi have become the only material used to train teachers and are in effect memorized by students. While this behavior is not required, nor necessarily condoned by the Board, the rigidly prescribed, centralized system combined with scarce resources creates an atmosphere where these behaviors are the norm rather than the exception in all aspects of schooling.

Militating against the development and use of effective, relevant content and pedagogy at the school level is the extensive system of internal and external examinations.

Schools in all authorities test pupils during and at the end of each grade. Then each authority sets out its own regulations. For purpose of discussion, those of DNE will be used. These are probably more detailed, but not significantly different from those that were used in the other authorities. From Sub-Standard A to Standard 3, all examinations are created, administered and marked by the classroom teachers. At Standard 4, the Examination Board provided a common examination which was administered and marked by the local schools. Scores on that exam were combined in a specified way with internal marks to provide a total score which determined eligibility for the Standard 4 certificate which marked the end of Primary School.

Standards 5 and 6 give internal exams, Standard 7 has a semi-external (meaning externally set, but locally marked) and Standard 8 has a fully external exam which is marked externally. Standard 9 is semi-external and Standard 10 is fully external, being set and marked by the Department of Education and Culture of the Republic of South Africa.

These examinations are linked directly to the required syllabi of the promotional subjects and are used primarily to make promotion decisions at the end of each Standard. The 1986 *Gazette* for Senior Primary schools sets out the specific rules for promotion as follows:

> To be promoted from one standard to the next in Senior Primary education, a pupil at any ordinary school shall be compelled to follow the courses and syllabuses prescribed in Chapter B of this Gazette.
>
> The subjects which senior primary pupils must pass, shall be (a) the first language; (b) one second language; and (c) any three of the subjects - Mathematics, Geography, History, General Science or another second language.
>
> The minimum pass marks shall be - (a) 40% of the grand total; (b) 40% for the first language; and (c) 33.33% for each of the three remaining promotion subjects... (*Gazette*, Vol. 3, No. 19/86, p. 22-23).

The regulation is quoted here to provide a glimpse of the level of specificity of the instructions which leave virtually no discretion to teachers or principals with regard to any aspect of the testing process.

There is no mention of the use of these tests for diagnostic reasons or to help the teacher assess the needs of the pupils and to revise the teaching accordingly. The whole emphasis is on promotion decisions. These rules are adhered to quite firmly, resulting in a system which the Minister has described as a "harsh examination and promotion system" (Eleventh Conference of Commonwealth Ministers of Education, p. 5). The resulting attrition level is very high, as reflected in the drop-out, perhaps better termed push-out, rates which are discussed in an earlier chapter. The result is a system with less than 1% (3,250 out of about 370,000) of the total number of pupils (including all the Whites) enrolled in Standard 10. Of this small number, only about 40% succeed in passing the Matric examination at the end of Standard 10 – again including the Whites who do much better on average than the others.

Planned Changes. The new Ministry of Education is acutely aware of the problems associated with the existing examination and promotion system and has appointed a Task force on the Development of a National Assessment Authority (NAA) to begin the reform process. The new NAA is expected to have more limited powers than the previous Examination Board had. Curriculum development and testing will be transferred to the NIED. At this point it is unclear whether NIED will ultimately have to obtain approval from NAA for the new curricula and syllabi or just what that relationship will be. Ultimately, these powers will need to be spelled out in new legislation.

The NAA will be responsible for designing and administering certificates for Primary Leaving, Junior Secondary Leaving, and in collaboration with the Cambridge Examination Syndicate, the administration of the International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE), which the government is committed to using at the end of Secondary School. Some provision is also being made for the offering of "A levels," as well as a variety of other testing for language, business, secretarial services and so forth.

To address the problems with the rigid examination and promotion policies of the past, the MOE is currently discussing a graded pass option for primary education, where pupils would generally be promoted, but would carry with them a record of their performance in various subjects. The emphasis on making a binary pass/fail decision each year would be dropped. The goal would be a system where most pupils are promoted and most achieve at least minimal competence in the core subjects. Selection for higher levels would be based on the grades obtained at the previous level.

These ideas are very controversial because they are seen by some as a deterioration of standards, leading to incompetent people being promoted, and thereby threatening the integrity of the certificates which will be awarded. Moving the society toward a concept of assessment on a continuum and away from the binary pass/fail framework will be a longer term educational process.

Issues for Discussion. Many systems of education are said to be examination-driven, with the content and style of the examinations exerting undue influence on the content and methods of classroom teaching. Namibia has inherited a system which is dominated by the Examination Board to an unparalleled extent. While the administration of the examinations can be readily taken over by the new NAA, experience elsewhere suggests that making significant changes in the nature of the exam and its influence on the schools is not a short-term task. Most Namibians, non-educators as well as educators, are strongly conditioned to the present examination structure and have, to varying degrees, internalized a belief that the system is objective and fair for everyone.

Some critical issues that need thought and debate include the following:

a. *The examination system.* The content, timing, language of administration, relative weighting of subjects, and definition of pass levels will all become the focus of intense debate. Any modification of examinations is rightly perceived to potentially change the chance which different groups have to succeed and thus to be eligible for access to different opportunities within the new society.

Some mechanism is needed to manage this debate which can inspire confidence in its fairness in all communities.

b. *Testing for success rather than failure.* Pupils, teachers, administrators and parents need to be educated to understand that tests can serve diagnostic and instructional support roles, rather than just being used for pass/fail decisions.

OTHER ISSUES IN INSTRUCTIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

The following sections deal briefly with other issues that are integral to the challenge of instructional effectiveness. Each of these topics deserves a substantial section on its own, but the time available and the priorities of the mission precluded more in-depth treatment.

Language of Instruction. Language has both a symbolic and a communication function. Choice of language and the domains in which various languages are used reflects the social and economic power relationships of that society. The choice of English as a national language in Namibia is an important symbolic statement which signals the changing power relationships with South Africa after independence and an opening up of Namibia to the rest of the world where English is an important means of communication. With that policy decision firmly in place, the language issues which remain are those of timing and sequence of introduction and implementation of policies with regard to the other languages of Namibia.

The general policy for education is that English shall be phased in as the language of instruction in all schools, eventually starting at Grade 4 throughout the country. Most pupils will begin school in their home language, except in situations where the mixture of languages in the school makes that impractical – in which case English may be used from the outset. Pupils will be instructed in their home language with English as a subject until Grade 4 when the situation will be reversed with English becoming the language of instruction and the home language being a subject.

The challenge facing educators is that of building the communications abilities of pupils in several languages in an efficient and cost-effective manner.

- The short run task focuses on training of teachers, developing and distributing materials and providing the necessary in-service support to get effective English language instruction operating within a fairly short time frame.
- Limiting the proportion of the curriculum devoted to language so that other subjects can get more attention. (In some existing three- language schools nearly half the timetable is devoted to language.)
- Changing the teaching of language to more efficient, modern methods that put more emphasis on the ability to use language as a tool of communication and less on its structure and grammatical rules.
- Making use of oral-aural teaching methods, instructional radio for teachers and perhaps for pupils, and use of a variety of printed materials in class and out.

- Using both print and electronic mass media and other strategies to create an environment where English is heard and used outside of school.
- Finding external donors to provide ESL materials, training for Namibians to develop their own materials including a variety of English for Special Purposes approaches, and assistance in compiling vernacular-English dictionaries for the major Namibian languages.
- Studying methods used in other African countries for possible adaptation. For instance, Lesotho has had excellent success with pupil-generated reading materials which are published and distributed to every class in a monthly newsprint reader, as well as providing a newsletter for every teacher in the country. And, the *Breakthrough to Literacy* program now used in several SADCC countries should also be looked at.

Language policies should encourage effective and innovative approaches based on experience elsewhere. Coming late to independence allows Namibia to build on the experiences of other countries rather than trying to create its own materials which is both time consuming and expensive. Working closely with other SADCC countries would be efficient and would help to break the isolation of Namibian educators that resulted from South African rule.

- **Vocational and Technical Education.** The formal school system has relatively limited offerings of a technical or vocational nature. In his September 1989 report for SIDA, Hultin indicates that 6% of the Senior Secondary students are enrolled in vocational/technical schools. The 1989 statistics suggest this number is a good deal smaller, with a total of less than 600 students overall. The number of pupils taking practical subjects in diversified secondary schools is several times as large, but still a small proportion (about 3% of total pupil-subjects reported in 1989 for Standard 8 are of a practical nature).

There are four agricultural colleges in Namibia, but it appears that not all of them are functioning and that under enrollment due to "unqualified" applicants is a serious limitation. Hultin suggests that the existing physical facilities for vocational subjects are surprisingly good, although there are the usual problems with consumable supplies for workshops and laboratories. He notes that the Otto Bennecke Foundation school has an unusually effective approach which should be emulated in other institutions. Overall though, schools have a limited and poorly distributed capacity for vocational and technical training. Some conscious policy decisions on whether to expand or redistribute access to these facilities will be needed. Much more technical training seems to take place in industry and business, especially in the mines, transport and power enterprises, and many construction firms. Most educators and economists feel that these venues are the most cost-effective way of doing technical training and therefore should be encouraged.

Since independence, the Government has not focused much attention on this problem, beyond the pre-vocational bias which is inherent in the Loudima curriculum that was used as a basis for the new Junior Secondary Curriculum. The November 1990 MOE policy statement indicates that, when Hultin's second report is available in early 1991, a task force will be established to "reinvigorate Vocational and Technical education to meet the needs of the economy and the informal sector" (Education Reform Directive, p. 29).

The Ministry has, however, approved a proposal to install an *Education with Production* project in a former White primary school in Ruacana in the far north. This approach derives originally from the Botswana Brigades and has much to recommend it in an independent Namibia.

Policy issues to keep in mind in this sub-sector would include:

- Vocational & Technical training are difficult to make cost effective in formal schools, especially in settings of significant resource scarcity for formal education. Government should actively investigate a variety of incentive structures to encourage the private sector to undertake more training.
- The *Education with Production* approach offers a significant alternative to the standard formal education model and should be vigorously pursued, at least on a pilot basis. Experimentation with linkages to small entrepreneur training and revolving loan schemes to support such efforts should be undertaken.
- Curriculum and examination reform are badly needed for those schools which are going to continue to offer such training.
- Careful analysis of the existing technical schools, as well as the diversified curricula of other schools, should be undertaken in the context of Namibia's future needs for trained personnel. Policies which limit the role of schools in technical training and support private sector responsibility should be considered.

Learning Materials. The official policy of the previous authorities with regard to learning materials was that the government would provide both textbooks and all writing materials needed for school. Books were loaned to pupils, but returned to the schools for subsequent classes. The availability of texts seemed, from a very limited sample, to be a function of the per pupil expenditures of the different authorities. White, Coloured, Rehobeth and DNE schools seemed to have fairly recent textbooks in sufficient numbers, while other authorities provided older and fewer texts. Effective supply of learning materials is a function of both the financial resources to purchase them and having the necessary management and transportation capability to deliver them to the schools efficiently. The latter capacities are severely limited in most of the former ethnic authorities.

Learner-Centered Instruction. In the judgement of this Sector Review Team, the presently available instructional materials are perhaps the greatest single constraint on the Namibian educational system. This is especially true at the primary level. These materials were developed for use by white, middle-class children to prepare them for continuing on to higher levels of education. They are beyond the reading level of most of the rural primary children and even some of the teachers. Moreover, these materials were not written to include subjects and content emphasis essential for the development of an independent Namibia.

To be effective, teaching must be learner-centered; it must focus on the individual child. Most traditional instruction is not, in fact, learner- centered; rather the focus is on the teacher and the processes of education. The most effective means of shifting the focus from the instructional processes to successful individual achievement is through instruc-

tionally designed materials. Instructional Systems Design (ISD), as a means of designing and developing instructional resources, was mentioned briefly in Chapter Two. ISD-type instructional products and processes – textbooks, workbooks, practical exercises, and teacher activities – don't look much different from conventional instructional materials. The difference lies in the way that they are designed and developed and the way that they have been empirically validated in terms of their teaching effectiveness.

In the building of ISD instruction, one starts with the questions: When the teaching is finished, what do we want the child to know? What do we want him or her to be able to do? What values and attitudes do we want the child to have? Then teaching processes and materials are designed, accompanied by easy-to-use guides to show ordinary teachers how to use these resources.

Policy issues to consider would include.:

- Defining more clearly the relationship between the curriculum development responsibilities of the new NIED and the location of both the responsibility and capability for developing, printing and distributing learning materials.
- Setting up procedures whereby materials developed in other SADCC countries can be obtained, evaluated and considered for adoption and/or adaptation, so as to minimize the cost and lead time for getting newer and more relevant materials into Namibian classrooms.
- Accessing systematically the experience and expertise developed in other African countries in regard to purchasing or printing textbooks, and the options for warehousing and distributing them to schools.
- Assessing the cost implications for the future of various approaches, including the possibility of some cost sharing by parents, particularly in the high income areas of the country.
- Integration of the field research and experimentation implicit in the ISD approaches with other activities designed to increase the participation of teachers and principals in the improvement of instructional effectiveness.

CHAPTER SIX

CAPACITIES FOR PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT OF EDUCATION

PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT FUNCTIONS

The Government has established laudatory and ambitious goals for its national educational system. A small number of highly capable leaders in a very short time frame has made remarkable progress toward the creation of this a system. From the organizational plans, the stated goals, and the announced national priorities, it is evident that a great deal of careful thought and analysis has preceded the administrative decisions and the policy formulations made during the first year of independence. Numerous studies by international consultants and assistance groups have been made, some even before independence was formally achieved. These studies, coupled with the experience of the small cadre of highly qualified top educational leaders, have informed the decisions that have been made. Of necessity, much of this planning work has been done in an extremely limited time frame and, in some instances, in an ad hoc way. It is imperative now that "crisis management" not become a modus operandi for the MOE. From the current government reports and policy statements, it can not be determined whether the long term effects of the immediate and short-term decisions and policies are being fully taken into account.

It is far easier to administer an existing, stable educational system than it is to attempt to change a system and simultaneously maintain its operational effectiveness. In order to systematically and coherently change the present educational system into an effective, unified, and egalitarian system the MOE will require more than ordinary management support. A number of crucial systemic management support functions need to be institutionalized within the ministry - and almost at once. This is recognized by the government in policy statements, planning documents, the new organizational structure, and staffing plans. Educational reform, "Change with Continuity", has as a prerequisite. This prerequisite is the capacities for policy analysis and planning; statistics, data collection, and evaluation; basic and applied research; financial management; and, not of least importance, instructional development.

Policy Analysis and Planning. The decision to focus initially on the revision of the junior secondary curriculum was an important policy decision. Future changes in the examination policies, school structure, course syllabi,and other conditions integral to the national school system, will also result in important changes in educational policies. As each decision is taken it will affect other decisions and constrain freedom of choice in other areas. The decision to focus on junior secondary is a case in point. All of which underscores the importance of institutionalizing, at a senior level in the Ministry, the policy analysis and planning function.

Financial Management. Effective financial management requires an ability to cost operational alternatives, to design both functional and policy budgets, to monitor distribution of funds, and to conduct necessary audits and evaluations of expenditure processes.

The calculation of costs for alternatives in policies and practices is necessary for projecting the fiscal implications of these choices. Design of a function budget requires identification of major functional categories (e.g., formal education) and expenditure categories (e.g., remuneration). A policy budget is more demanding because it must have sufficient detail to study how the budget is allocated by levels, regions, gender of student, and other variables critical for policy deliberation. Monitoring the distribution of funds simply entails assuring that the right amount of funds is allocated to the right agency or location. Auditing and evaluation activities are designed to see that funds were expended on the item (audit approach) or to achieve the purpose (evaluation approach) for which the funds were originally was allocated.

Data Collection and Evaluation. In many countries, the availability of statistical information - demographic, fiscal, and programmatic -is limited. Such is not the case in Namibia. Relevant and reliable data describing the country's educational system are available. In some instances, the mode of data storage doesn't lend itself to continuing statistical treatment, cross-tabulations, and other information analyses that would better inform and guide decision-making and policy analysis. Presently, the MOE data sets are being expanded and revised to allow more useful and detailed analyses by level and type of education. Given that it is as easy to collect good data as bad, the expansion and improvement of the educational management information system (EMIS) should receive continuing attention.

Basic and Applied Research. There is little indication that research – applied or basic – was a high priority of the former colonial education administration. Research-derived educational innovations in use in other countries are not much in evidence in Namibian schools. A notable exception to this is computer assisted instruction which is used in some urban schools. Experimentation with new teaching/learning processes is particularly important if the government's aim of creating an effective and accessible system of education is to be realized. The unique and widely variant conditions of schooling found in the nation make research on new instructional processes and products especially critical. In order to guide decision and policy-making, such research must be rigorous, well-controlled, and relevant for schools. The analysis and identification of problems in the context of the actual conditions of schooling should form the basis for establishing the national educational research agenda and priorities.

A number of potentially fruitful research projects might include: experimentation with small, more dispersed schools in the rural areas; the development and use of special teaching materials to provide stronger support for the under-qualified teacher; tryout in representative schools of ungraded, continuous progress for students in the first four or five grades; or strategies for increasing community participation in school activities and determining the effects on student achievement. The University of Namibia may be a resource for some educational research activities, but the university, with its own mission should not be relied upon exclusively to meet this need.

Instructional Development. In the past, the eleven regional educational authorities have relied on South African and other foreign publishers for most of the textbooks and instructional materials used in schools. It can be argued that the instructional materials

presently in use were designed to teach, but rather to serve for problem-solving exercises or as a compendium of information. Even with a highly qualified and competent teacher serving as the principle deliverer of instruction, the present textbooks would be far from optimum with students. The use of "non-teaching" textbooks is not unusual in world schools. However, with the numbers of under and unqualified teachers presently teaching in Namibian schools, particularly rural primary schools, the complexity and "non-teaching" characteristics of these textbooks do not support satisfactory levels of learner achievement. The high failure rates reported in the rural schools support this contention.

The high failure rates, which many educators in Namibia accept as inevitable, are unnecessary. Instructional resources can be developed, with state-of-the-art methodologies, which will contribute directly to student achievement. The design of instructional systems should include gearing the level and sequencing of instructional events to the entry-level competencies of the children with whom the materials are to be used. They should also be designed to teach. The instructional effectiveness of materials should be empirically determined by trying the material out with pupils from the intended learner group and then revising the material until it accomplishes its teaching purposes. As a means of significantly improving student achievement, this learner-centered approach has been demonstrated under widely varying conditions of instruction. Moreover, textbooks and the curriculum are only one component of the instructional delivery system. What teachers are trained and expected to do; scheduling; supervision; and physical facilities, should all be taken together as targets for improvement. These components of instruction are not independent of one another, though they are usually treated as if they were.

If children in the remote, rural areas, with marginal competence in the language of instruction, and taught by an inadequately educated teacher, are to succeed in learning, the development of systematically designed materials is essential. Instructional Systems Design (ISD) is an empirical and systematic methodology for the development of instructional processes and products, the instructional effectiveness of which can be demonstrated. ISD as an educational reform tool has been shown to be powerful and effective in the USA, Korea, Botswana, and many other places. Few Namibian educators visited by the team appeared to be aware of this developmental technology.

MANAGEMENT AND ADMINISTRATION CAPACITY

In the central ministry and in the regional offices visited by the survey team, the administrative and management operations appeared to be efficient, business-like, and professional. The personnel in responsible positions gave the impression of being highly competent and dedicated to the government aim of developing a quality, egalitarian national educational program. There seemed to be no doubt that the new central and regional administrations have personnel--though not in great numbers--who are well-qualified and experienced. These people should provide the staff nucleus for the management and administrative support for the ongoing, routine operation of the national school system. Increases in position authorization for the MOE have been largely restricted to those areas that will be critical for raising the quality of teaching and learning at the school level, and transforming the system from the fragmented, colonial inheritance to a unified, national system.

Current and Proposed Administration. The Ministry's existing and proposed inventory of positions is included in Annex A. The number of proposed positions represents a net increase of 1,410 positions. There will be an Under Secretary heading each of the Ministry's eight departments. One of the departments will be the new National Institute of Educational Development (NIED), whose chief may be entitled Director General, to distinguish him or her from the heads of the operating departments. The position will have the equivalent rank and pay grade of an Under Secretary. Those critical positions whose numbers are most dramatically increased are shown in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1

Existing and Proposed Positions for Planners, Inspectors, and Subject Advisers.

Position	Existing Posts	Proposed Posts
Chief Education Planner	7	40
Education Planner	37	103
Chief Subject Adviser	2	11
Subject Adviser	181	330
Education Inspector	64	91
Total	110	575

This five-fold increase in the authorizations for these key positions represents a significant increase in administrative and support staff. The prudence of this large increase is questionable. These positions have been announced and applications are presently being received. In fact, the increase in new personnel is even larger than the number of new posts because many of the existing positions are now vacant.

When these positions are filled, each regional office will have a well- staffed planning office. The function and role of the planning capacity in the central ministry is less clear. The only identifiable planning activity in the new MOE organization chart (see Fig. 2.1 in Chapter 2) is located in the Department of Formal Education. This planning unit has included in its list of responsibilities: physical planning and maintenance; external resources; statistics and data; and special projects. It may be presumed, because of its organizational locus, that the planning unit's work will be confined to formal education. Nothing approximating a senior level Policy Analysis Unit is included on the organization chart.

Financial Management in Namibia. Financial management of the education system is the responsibility of the MOE's Department of Auxiliary Services (DAS). The Department currently is headed by an Under Secretary, supported by a Director of Finance and a Director of Administration and Logistics. Their largest responsibility is the preparation of the Ministry's annual budget. This begins with submissions from the Directors or Heads of the regional offices (when the regions are reduced to six, the senior office in the largest two of these will be Under Secretaries). These submissions are discussed with the DAS

and revised based on their recommendations. The DAS then combines the regional requests with those from the central Ministry (plus special transfer obligations, such as that of the Academy) to produce the Ministry's budget.

The draft budget is presented to the Ministry of Finance with accompanying motivations (justifications) for each major item. Recurrent cost budgets are dealt with in a "base-plus" format with each region receiving their previous year's level plus some percentage. The percentage is based on the Ministry of Finance's (MOF) expectation for the overall budget increase and the relative priority assigned to the MOE.

Once the budget is approved, the funds are expended either directly by the central Ministry (for most teacher's salaries, for example) or allocated to the regions (for small purchases and for those teachers who must be paid in cash). Prior to FY1992, all salaries were paid by the MOF. Regional Directors have authority to spend up to R4,000 on budgeted items at their discretion. Capital budgets are proposed based on need and operate on a zero-base. Each year requests start from zero. If a project approved one year is not completed in that fiscal year, a request must be made to carry the funds forward. If this is not done, the funds are lost and a new proposal for funding must be made. Almost all capital projects are managed by the Ministry of Public Works and are contracted to private firms.

If the budget requires change, this is done by the "Economizing Committee" made up of senior Ministry officials. In September of each year agencies can bid for additional funds from unexpected revenues or from revenues which have been budgeted but do not appear likely to be expended.

The new staffing structure will place Auxiliary Services personnel in each region. These individuals will assume the responsibility for preparation of the regional budget (under direction of the head of the region) for submission to the central Ministry.

A major reform in the budget process has been to redesign the budget data set to allow for greater detail. This also will allow accurate estimates of unit costs to be generated for various levels and types of education for the first time. Overall, the financial management system appears appropriate, effective, and professionally staffed.

Research and Development. Many of the MOE's constituent divisions and units would be found in most countries' Ministries of Education. Formerly, a number of the support and administrative functions were provided by the regional administrations. Some of these functions now will be totally centralized; others will be split between the new regional offices and the central ministry. One important activity, not previously seen, is a systemic program of educational research and development. To perform this function the Ministry is creating the National Institute of Educational Development (NIED). Expectations for this organization's contribution to the transition and improvement of national education clearly run very high.

A Project Development Committee is now at work planning the NIED. In July, 1990, the Committee visited research and development units, similar to the envisioned NIED, in Zambia, Botswana, and Zimbabwe.

From MOE reports and policy statements, it may be inferred that the NIED will be the centerpiece of the reform initiative and the foundation of the change process. It will have a range of important responsibilities, including: (1) instructional and curriculum development and syllabi design; (2) language research and development; (3) teacher education development; (4) education media development; (5) development of procedures for educational assessment, examination and evaluation; and (6) the development of high level human resources, e.g., advisers, inspectors, principals, and teacher trainers. Clearly, all of these developmental activities are urgently needed. The mission set forth for the NIED assigns it a great responsibility for innovation and improvement.

New physical facilities for the NIED will be constructed in Okahandja, located about forty miles northwest of Windhoek, which is connected by rail and a good highway. Over fifty acres of wooded land within walking distance of the Okohandja commercial center will be the site of NIED. Construction is expected to take at least two years.

While the Okahandja facilities are being built, a nucleus unit will begin work in Windhoek. This group will include 15 to 20 professional staff in the coming year, exclusive of the people presently assigned to the existing Examination Unit. This unit will become a part of the NIED organization and may remain located in the capitol city. Planning for the NIED has not been completed, but estimates of its future staff size have ranged as high as 100 professional personnel.

In the Minister's Education Reform Directive of November, 1990, mention was made of a National Assessment Authority. The role of this authority has yet to be defined, as well as its membership and organizational locus. There is some sentiment in the MOE for keeping it at arms length from the Ministry in order to ensure its objectivity and independence. It is unlikely that the National Assessment Authority will have the same responsibilities and authority as the present Examination Board.

ANALYSIS AND COMMENT

The institutional capacity for creative innovation and problem solving must be created if Namibia's educational reform is to be realized. Educators in Namibia have, as in most countries, accepted as reality that many children cannot or will not learn in formal schools. Many educators believe they have fully discharged their responsibilities when they have engaged in the processes of education: "I taught as I was taught to teach; it is unfortunate, but unavoidable, that many of the children did not learn." This is a mind set that must change if the reform is to succeed. All 20,000 people responsible for the nurturing and development of the nation's youth should believe that their purpose is to insure that each child learns to his or her capacity. If the child does not learn, then the first assumption should be that something is wrong with the teaching process, not with the child.

In the Namibian educational establishment, there are many well-qualified professionals - teachers, administrators, supervisors, evaluators, curriculum specialists, and more. There are, however, some areas of expertise which appear to be nonexistent or in short supply. Instructional design specialists, media developers specializing in low-cost materials, and applied educational researchers, are specializations that will be needed.

Some of these are relatively new specialties in professional education, but have proved effective in education reform efforts in other countries.

Namibia faces great constraints in providing a quality and relevant education to its highly dispersed rural population. Some innovative ideas and practices that have been successful in other similar teaching/learning environments might be borrowed or adapted. Useful lessons can be learned from the experiences of other countries, such as Zimbabwe, Botswana, Lesotho, and others. But these experiences will not be enough. Creative solutions to those problems which are uniquely Namibian in character must be found in Namibia. It is unlikely that the traditional teacher-centered method of schooling will ever be adequate to meet the needs of the thousands of rural children, even with well qualified teachers. New materials, tailored to the special needs of rural children, will be required. These new materials need not lower the end-of-school academic standards, but they should be written at a language level comprehensible to the learner, and in a context that is familiar. Given that the children will not suddenly change to become more suitable for traditional teaching, and given that the teachers, even with additional training, will not become miracle workers, it is necessary to devise instructional processes and products which will be successful under these conditions. This task is technically feasible in Namibia. Indispensable to the development of a learner-centered, empirically developed, successful and affordable instructional system are people who are trained in systematic approaches to development.

CHAPTER SEVEN

THE RESOURCE BASE FOR EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines the macroeconomic conditions and trends in Namibia, the structure and financing of government recurrent and capital budgets, the specific levels and forms of educational costs, and the Government's capacity to finance the increased costs that will be associated with the planned expansions and quality improvements in Namibian education. As in earlier chapters, the focus will be on basic education activities, but the establishment of a proper analytical context requires discussion of the full range of educational activities, as well as education's relative position within the public sector and the public sector's place in the larger macroeconomic setting.

Ultimately, the ability of a nation to finance education, through public or other means, is determined in large part by the vigour and stability of the general economy. In addition, the macroeconomic conditions specifically determine Government's fiscal capacity to absorb increased expenditures for new education initiatives.

Fiscal capacity analysis compares the expected growth of governmental resources with planned increases in demands on these resources. Development (capital) costs are considered both as a source for competing demands relative to recurrent costs in the short run and as a basis for increased recurrent costs (maintenance, repair, and concomitant personnel expenses) in the long run. Finally, an analysis of the forms of educational costs (administrative and teaching personnel, instructional materials, facilities and equipment) allows for an assessment of the present appropriateness of this cost structure and for an estimation of the implications for planned change in the form or scale of Namibia's educational delivery systems.

STRUCTURE AND PROSPECTS OF THE NAMIBIAN ECONOMY

The Namibian economy is characterized by:

* a relatively well-developed transportation and communications infrastructure
* efficient exploitation of its mineral resources base, but at a low level of growth
* well-established, large-scale commercial agriculture
* an open international trading system with a history of positive trade balances
* an underdeveloped fisheries sector with a history of foreign exploitation
* an extensive subsistence agriculture sector
* a relatively high per capita GDP (US$1,100 in 1988), but a very unequal distribution of income
* extensive regional imbalances in the level and prospects for modern sector development
* a rapidly expanding public sector.

While per capita income is high relative to most sub-Saharan economies, the real purchasing power level actually fell at an average rate of 4 per cent per annum between 1980 and 1988. This decline was caused by a general stagnation of economic growth combined with high population growth (estimated at 3 per cent per annum) and price inflation. As in most characteristics, disparities are substantial: in 1988 White per capita GDP was estimated at $6,000 while non-whites averaged $300; regional disparities exist on approximately the same scale.

Estimates of the labour force in 1989 ranged from 500,000 to 650,000. Approximately 185,000 of these individuals are employed in the modern sector and 20 to 50 per cent are in subsistence agriculture. The unusual breadth of this estimate reflects the serious uncertainty that attaches to all population and economic participation estimates in Namibia. Unemployment is estimated at between 20 and 30 per cent of the labour force and is almost exclusively among non-white populations.

The informal sector is active in Namibia, but its contribution to unmeasured GDP and "hidden" employment is difficult to judge. Estimates range from a 7 per cent to 25 per cent increase over measured GDP with an even larger contribution to employment. Even with these counterbalances, over one-half of the urban population lives below the subsistence threshold of R350 per month and, even adjusting for a lower rural subsistence standard of R200 per month, 60 per cent of Namibia's total population is experiencing absolute poverty.

The status of the Namibian economy, combining as it does both positive and negative dimensions, will face substantial challenges in the next decade. Among the constraints which must be overcome are: continued high population growth (especially high among the presently most disadvantaged populations); increased urbanization; continued poverty and high rates of modern sector unemployment; increased demands for a broad range of social services; the prospect of large recurrent and capital budget deficits even with increased taxation; continued high inflation; shortages of technical, managerial and entrepreneurial skills; an elastic demand for Namibia's primary exports; a shortage of foreign resources; and a continued dependence on external sources for a large range of consumption goods.

Namibia's stated intention is to develop a pragmatic, country-specific development strategy unlinked to ideological orientations. A policy to promote "sustainable growth and development with equity" will require a focus on infrastructure, policy contexts (incentives and regulations), and human capital development. However, strong political support also exists for more rapid schemes of wealth redistribution and for large scale expansion of Government to provide the social services that in the past have been denied or distributed unequally to Namibia's population. The challenge to development in Namibia is to deal with these potentially competing demands for long term economic reform and short term redress of injustice in a manner that does not lead to political instability or economic disruption.

The annual growth of real GDP between 1990 and 1996 is expected to vary from 1.6 per cent to 5.1 per cent. This growth is expected to be led by increases in the agriculture and fishing sector of up to 6.0 per cent per year with mining recovering from its present

negative rate to 1.0 per cent per year after 1991. The manufacturing sector is expected to grow at a rate of 3.0 per cent per year over most of the 1991 – 1996 time period. Further macroeconomic details are presented in Table 7.1.

THE NAMIBIAN PUBLIC SECTOR

The most dramatic feature of the Namibian economy over the last decade was the rapid expansion of the public sector. Public sector expenditures between fiscal year FY1980 and FY1989 increased from R297 million to R1,865 million; as a percentage of GDP this represents an increase from 37 percent to 53 per cent. A disturbing aspect of the expansion that occurred prior to independence was that the expenditures focused on consumption (personnel and consumables) rather than capital investments. In fact, capital expenditures as a per cent of the total public sector fell from 18 to 8 percent between FY1985 and FY1990; real capital expenditure decreased from R216 million to R100 million.

Table 7.2 summarizes the sources of revenue and the destinations of expenditures by ministry for the FY1991 budget. Slightly over one-half (50.5%) of the revenue came from taxes and duties (the sales tax and the tax on individuals were the two most important individual contributors, but the set of mining taxes still produced R282 million or 23.6 per cent of total taxes and duties). The next largest producer of revenue was custom and excise taxes which generated 22.9 per cent of the total. Foreign contributions for FY1991 were projected at R160 million or 6.8 per cent of total revenue.

The total current and capital expenditure by ministry is listed in Rand as well as in terms of each agency's per cent of the total and per cent of the current expenditure. The MOE is the second largest expenditure activity of Government with 18.2 per cent of the total expenditure and 20.2 per cent of the current expenditure. The largest ministry in terms of expenditure is the Ministry of Public Works, Transport and Communication (21.3 per cent). However, this ministry is a service agency in charge of the capital construction activities for other ministries. For example, the MOE's share of the total capital budget was 30.9 per cent, making education the number one expenditure for the Government of Namibia.

The projected deficit for FY1991 was R209.7 million; this represents 8.9 per cent of projected revenues and 8.1 per cent of projected expenditure. Expenditures for the first six months of the fiscal year were less than originally projected, primarily because of delays in the organization of the new ministerial structures. The current year's deficit repeats a pattern that existed prior to independence.

In the past, the public sector expenditure increases were not accompanied by proportional increases in tax or other revenue. Between FY1977 and FY1989 expenditures exceeded revenues by an average of 42 per cent. This problem was aggravated by the dependence on direct taxation on the stagnant mining sector (direct taxes, of which the mining tax was most important, represented 24 per cent of Government revenue in FY1989). The general sales tax contributed 17 per cent and the customs and excise taxes 27 per cent of total revenue. Also, the discontinuance of Republic of South Africa (RSA)

Table 7.1

SUMMARY OF PROJECTIONS OF NAMIBIAN MACROECONOMIC INDICATORS

		1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996
A.	Real Economy : [% growth]							
	GDP at market Prices	1.6	4.5	5.1	4.9	4.9	4.5	4.3
	GDP at factor Cost	1.7	4.5	5.1	4.9	4.9	4.5	4.3
	Agriculture and fishing	8.1	17.5	20.1	17.2	15.4	12.2	10.3
	Agriculture	1.5	4.5	5.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0
	Fishing	83.9	100.0	70.0	40.0	30.0	20.0	15.0
	Industry	-2.5	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8
	Manufacturing	5.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
	Other Industry (Elect. & Construction)	-0.5	5.0	5.0	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5
	Mining and Quarrying	-4.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
	Other	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.4	3.4
	Investment 1.6	4.5	5.1	4.9	4.9	4.5	4.3	
	Consumption per capita	-4.2	-1.0	-1.0	-1.2	-1.2	-0.7	-0.1
	GDP per capita	-1.4	1.5	2.1	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.3
B.	Imports							
	Import value [US$m.]	894.3	938.9	995.0	1046.2	1118.0	1184.3	1280.6	1366.9
	Import volume [% growth]	..	-1.9	1.9	2.0	1.8	1.8	2.1	2.6
	Imports/ GDP [% in current US$]	47.0	46.6	45.6	43.7	42.6	41.1	40.0	37.8
	Imports/ GDP [% in constant Rand]	47.0	45.3	44.2	42.9	41.6	40.3	39.4	38.8
	Import elasticity of GNFS	..	-0.8	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7
	Shares in total imports: [%]								
	Food	15.8	15.5	15.6	15.8	15.7	15.6	15.5	15.5
	Other consumer goods	37.2	36.5	36.7	37.1	36.9	36.6	36.5	36.5
	Raw materials	33.9	32.7	32.9	33.3	33.1	33.0	32.7	32.2
	Other Intern.	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Petroleum	7.5	9.6	9.0	7.6	7.9	8.2	8.5	9.0
	Capital equipment	5.6	5.7	5.9	6.2	6.4	6.6	6.7	6.8
C.	External Account								
	Exports Value [US$m.]	1021	1037	1127	1258	1431	1628	1822	2020
	Exports volume [growth rate]	..	3.5	5.7	7.1	6.9	6.8	5.8	4.9
	Exports/Imports [%]	114.2	110.5	113.3	120.2	128.0	136.1	142.3	147.8
	Trade balance [US$m.]	221	195	236	322	431	557	677	798
	Trade balance/ GDP [%]	6.7	4.9	6.1	8.8	11.9	14.9	16.9	18.0
	Current account balance [US$m.]	-62.4	-109.1	-90.8	-30.7	50.2	144.6	228.6	316.9
	Current account/ GDP [%]	-3.3	-5.4	-4.2	-1.3	1.9	5.0	7.1	8.8
D.	Macro balances								
	Investment/GDP [%]	16.6	16.3	16.6	16.7	16.8	16.6	16.6	16.6
	National savings/ GDP [%]	13.3	10.9	12.4	15.4	18.6	21.6	23.7	25.3
	Foreign savings/ GDP [%]	3.3	5.4	4.2	1.3	-1.9	-5.0	-7.1	-8.8
E.	Prices [Growth rates]								
	Inflation [%]		15.0	15.0	15.0	15.0	15.0	15.0	15.0
	Exchange rate [Rand/US$]	2.6	2.9	3.2	3.5	3.9	4.2	4.6	4.9
	Exports [%]		-1.9	2.8	4.1	6.4	6.4	5.9	5.7

SOURCE: THE WORLD BANK, 1990

Table 7.2

GOVERNMENT REVENUE BY SOURCE AND EXPENDITURE BY MINISTRY

FY 1991

Revenue Source	Revenue Amount (R000)	Percent
Tax and Duties	1,194,301	50.5
Loan Recoveries	27,182	1.1
Licenses	12,867	0.5
Fines and Forfeitures	3,500	0.1
Departmental Revenue	239,794	10.1
Customs and Excises	542,600	22.9
Contribution by the Amortization Fund	78,000	3.3
Loans	200	–
Sub Total	2,098,444	
Estimated Balances	108,000	4.6
Foreign Contributions	160,000	6.8
Total	2,366,444	100.0

Ministry	Total Current and Capital Expenditure (R000)	Percent	Percent of Current Expenditure
Office of the President	30,584	1.2	1.2
Office of the Prime Minister	52,733	2.0	2.3
Home Affairs	140,675	5.5	6.0
Foreign Affairs	45,882	1.7	2.0
Defense	122,682	4.8	5.3
Finance	379,507	14.7	15.7
Education, Culture, Youth and Sport	468,972	18.2	20.2
Information and Broadcasting	54,728	2.1	2.1
Health and Social Services	351,659	13.7	15.2
Labour & Manpower Development	12,000	0.5	0.5
Mines and Energy	10,103	0.4	0.4
Justice	18,420	0.7	0.8
Local Government and Housing	106,050	4.1	3.1
Wildlife, Conservation and Tourism	28,821	1.1	1.2
Trade and Industry	9,108	0.4	0.4
Agriculture, Fisheries, Water and Rural Development	178,438	6.9	6.0
Works, Transp. & Communication	549,865	21.3	17.0
Lands, Resettlement & Rehabilitation	15,869	0.6	0.4
Total	2,576,096		

DEFICIT = R209,652,000
Deficit as percent of Revenue = 8.1%
Deficit as percent of Expenditure = 8.9%

SOURCE: Ministry of Finance, 1990

budgetary aid is an important consideration. In FY1989, this aid equalled R313.8 million or almost 75 per cent of the current budget deficit that year.

In March 1989, the Central government debt was 893.6 million or 25.4 per cent of GDP. Normally this debt (with an annual debt service of R413 million) would not be a source of major concern. However, the prospects for continued and growing deficits could change this relatively quickly. In summary, the public sector is expanding rapidly and with an emphasis on consumption expenditures; the tax base is narrow and subject to substantial variation; and the Government will have to adjust to the discontinuance of RSA support. The new Government faces extraordinarily high public expectations for an expansion of public services in previously disadvantaged areas and at least a maintenance of conditions for the previously advantaged areas and populations. The Government will face substantial pressures in the short run to expand spending even at the cost of increased public debt.

The potential risk of this situation can be minimized by a policy of concentrating expenditure programs on those activities promoting the greatest social and financial benefits and by assuring that expenditure priorities are met at the lowest cost. The education sector will be a critical area where these public expenditure concerns will need to be addressed.

THE EDUCATION SECTOR

The education sector has represented 15 to 20 per cent of total Government expenditure in recent years. In the past, public revenues were generated separately by the Central Government and the Representative Authorities. The effectiveness of the latter varied enormously with the White Administration, raising R163.8 million in FY1987, and the Namas and Tswanas Administrations, raising only R1.8 million each. In that same year, 60 per cent of the total revenues of the Representative Authorities came from the Central Government.

The education component of this assistance was based on pupil numbers multiplied by a standard amount for primary, secondary, and hostel students. Cost and population considerations also were considered in determining the actual amounts allocated.

The Representative Authorities (excluding the Department of National Education) spent 36 per cent of their budgets in FY1987 on education, varying from 55 percent for the Administration for Coloureds to 18 per cent for the Tswana Administration. The per pupil education expenditure by Authority varied from R3,213 for Whites to R329 for Owambos. The budget structure used by the authorities does not allow unit cost calculations to be made by level or type of schooling.

The variations among Authorities in per student expenditures in FY1987 is replicated when one looks at the internal distribution of expenditures. Personnel (administrators and teachers) cost as a per cent of total expenditures varied from 48 percent for Tswanas to 86 percent for Rehoboth (for Whites it was 70 per cent). These personnel cost percentages are lower than those found in other sub-Saharan nations because of the extensive practice of boarding students (necessitated by the thin population

distribution in many areas). About 55,000 students (15 per cent of the total student population) lived in hostels and received subsidies in 1987 amounting to 10 per cent of the total education budget. Forty per cent of the total cost of hostels comes from fees paid by the students' families. These hostel fees, as well as the school fund fees assessed against all students, are managed by the individual schools; the school fees are not part of the Ministry's revenue or expenditure reports.

Capital costs are not part of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Youth and Sport (MOE) budget, but appear in the budget of the Ministry of Public Works (MPW). Priorities of the MOE are considered by the MPW in competition with requests from other ministries.

Table 7.3 presents the MOE budget for 1990 – 1991. The total request for R468.6 million is allocated across seven divisions:

* Ministry
* Administration
* Formal Education
* Nonformal Education
* Archive, Library and Language Services
* Museums, Sport and Culture Promotions
* Education Auxiliary Services.

The two largest divisions are Formal Education with R368.5 million (78.7 percent) and Administration with R74.6 million (15.9 per cent).

The budget also is divisible into the following functional categories (as indicated in Table 7.3):

* Remuneration
* Other Conditions of Service
* External and Internal Relations
* Supplies
* Equipment
* Services
* Transfer Payments (including the Employer's Contribution to the Pension fund).

For FY1991, direct remuneration expenses total R311,285,300 on 66.4 per cent of the total Ministry budget. When the expenses related to other conditions of service (R5.1 million) and the pension fund (R29.3 million) are added to direct remuneration, the total personnel cost represents 73.8 per cent of the total Ministry budget. A special area of concern is that the fastest growing area for remuneration expenditure is not teachers, but administrative and support staff.

Table 7.3

BUDGET OF THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, CULTURE, YOUTH AND SPORT

1990/91

(R000)

FUNCTIONAL CLASSIFICATION

Divisions	Remuneration	Other Conditions Of Service	External/ internal Relations	Supplies	Equipment	Services	Transfer Payments	Totals
MINISTRY	544.0	49.0	11.0	12.0	90.0	149.0	72.0	927.0
ADMINISTRATION	14,289.0	490.7	16.4	369.3	233.4	2,328.0	56,868.6	74,595.4
FORMAL EDUCATION	280,766.0	4,086.3	–	51,604.4	7,031.5	17,952.8	7,041.5	368,482.5
NON-FORMAL EDUCATION	3,131.5	176.1	–	480.2	115.3	1,097.0	283.6	5,283.7
ARCHIVE, LIBRARY AND LANGUAGE SERVICES	2,139.6	60.7	–	1,200.6	93.2	346.1	5.0	3,845.2
MUSEUM, SPORT AND CULTURE PROMOTION	1,931.3	126.4	–	236.4	209.8	400.5	1,955.9	4,860.3
EDUCATION AUXILIARY SERVICES	8,483.9	93.5	–	104.6	244.5	1,754.4	–	10,680.9
TOTALS	311,285.3	5,082.7	27.4	54,007.5	8,017.7	24,027.8	66,154.6	468,603.0

SOURCE: Ministry of Education, Culture, Youth and Sport, 1990

These remuneration figures compare with a supplies budget for formal education of R51.6 million and an equipment budget of only R7.0 million. Given that the present fiscal year will see the addition of an expanded central and regional administrative staff, personnel costs can be expected to increase both absolutely and as a per cent of the total (originally, this increase was estimated to be R30,707,683, but may be less because of unfilled positions). Future staffing increases, especially of administrative and support personnel, will need to be assessed carefully to assure that they represent an efficient means to improve school performance.

The capital projects included in the Government's estimate of expenditures for FY1991 equal R48,083,000 for the Ministry's education activities. This fund is allocated for 64 total projects, 39 of which are continuations of activities begun in prior years. Only R601,000 is allocated for direct Government management; the remaining R47.5 million will be administered through private sector construction firms.

The capital budget for FY1991 is equivalent to 10.3 per cent of the MOE's recent budget. While this means that the MOE has a lower recurrent to capital expenditure ratio than Government in general, the large and growing personnel and other recurrent costs in education can be seen as constraining new capital investments in facilities and other infrastructure. The education budget for FY1991 represented a shortfall of R50 million relative to the Ministry's request and estimate of need. The projected appropriation for FY1992 (R520 million) will involve an even larger gap between the Ministry's assessed need and its level of domestic support. Unfortunately, the absence of a project-based budget makes it impossible to identify the precise activities excluded because of the underfunding.

THE ABSORPTIVE CAPACITY FOR EDUCATION PLANS AND REFORMS: ASSUMPTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

A technical analysis of fiscal absorptive capacity in Namibia cannot be done because the cost implications of planned changes, the unit cost factors associated with the changes (for example, the cost of in-service training related to the Junior Secondary curriculum change), and changes in the balance among Government, community, and NGO/donor financing of recurrent and capital costs all remain either undefined or highly uncertain. What can be done usefully at this point is to examine the assumptions under which major educational plans have been constructed and the implications of these plans for Government's future fiscal condition.

Namibia's general policy statement (May, 1990), "The Reconstruction and Development of Namibia," lists six specific areas to be included in the Government's program for restructuring and rehabilitation. These are:

* The development and implementation of comprehensive in-service training
* The preparation of more adapted teaching materials
* The launching of nonformal vocational training to develop income-generating skills
* The devising of a financing scheme for the establishment of small-scale businesses

* The building of necessary infrastructure for formal and nonformal training
* The provision of budgetary support for restructuring the school system.

Each of these proposed activities will be analyzed in terms of the assumptions and their cost implications.

In-service Teacher Training. The proposed program will involve training Namibian teachers in such vital areas as English, Mathematics, and Science. The programs will involve use of foreign teachers as interim instructors and as trainers of Namibian counterparts.

In-service teacher training is seen as a critical need overall because of the large number of unqualified teachers and specifically because of the shortage of teachers qualified to teach at the secondary level (and even more specifically, qualified to teach in the subject areas noted above). A special need is seen to exist because of the Junior Secondary curriculum reform; this reform is designed to promote instructional changes both in schools and in the teacher training colleges.

While there is little debate over the need for in-service teacher training, no effective tradition of such programs exists in most of Namibia. The need is much broader than can be met by foreign teachers, volunteers or otherwise. In the past, in-service teacher training often has required individual teachers to finance their own travel and subsistence costs. If the in-service training program is to extend beyond daily counterpart relationships, some funding of these costs may be required. Otherwise, the geographical areas of greatest need will receive the least benefits.

The fiscal impact of this activity depends on its breadth (the number of teachers involved and their locations) and its structure (length of time, costs, and the nature of incentives/compensatory payments). A broad, inclusive plan should be implemented to avoid reinforcing existing regional inequities.

The in-service teacher education program proposed by Unesco/Unicef raises serious fiscal capacity questions. The proposal itself notes that there are "enormous non-quantifiable" costs to the Government. One of these costs is the increased recurrent expenditure necessitated by teachers moving to a higher level of qualification and thus a higher level of salary. A less ambitious program that increased only the lowest four levels of teachers (those below Std. 10 education) one level in rank would cost an estimated R17.4 million or almost 4 per cent of the total recurrent MOE budget and 6 per cent of the present remuneration budget.

A broader program to increase all teachers to their required level of qualification is even more difficult to estimate, but would certainly come close to exhausting the Ministry's discretionary resources for the next decade. This is not an argument against any in-service program; it is a warning that Government should not embark on such a program without a prior consideration, and more detailed estimates, of its "enormous" cost.

A parallel consideration is the opportunity cost of this use of donor funds. The US$48 million required to implement the three components of this proposal may be available for use on other educational improvements. Government managerial and teacher

time will be heavily expended in implementing this activity. Also, as noted in earlier chapters, teacher training must be coordinated with, and preferably preceded by, curriculum reform and new instructional materials design and production. It would be a great risk to initiate in-service teacher training on the scale proposed without ensuring that the development work on new instructional approaches is well under way and that the lower cost complementary materials and support services will be available in most classrooms.

More Adapted Teaching Materials. The present domination by externally produced teaching materials is seen by many as a limiting factor on pupil motivation and comprehension. Adapting materials to local sources, content, or examples should be possible without any reduction in the expected learning achievement of the student. One very appropriate adaptation of teaching materials will be to include instructional design techniques to adjust to the level of the teacher's academic and professional training and the current level of the students' learning skills. Properly designed instructional materials can increase teacher competency, at the same time they have an immediate positive effect on student learning.

The cost of cursory adaptation (use of Namibian examples and materials) will be relatively low and could be financed by the textbook/materials publishers under the emerging agreements with the MOE. Purchase and distribution of these materials can be either by the central or regional organizations or by the publishers themselves; making purchasing a regional responsibility saves Central Government funds only if books are not purchased (e.g., the anticipated Kavango region budget for FY1992 is insufficient to allow for new textbook purchases). In this alternative, imbalances in distribution of textbooks are the "cost" of saving central funds. In any case, unit costs for such materials are not yet available, but need not be significantly more expensive than present costs. Namibia can control the costs of cursory adaptation by benefiting from the experiences of Botswana, Zambia, and Zimbabwe and, perhaps, even sharing materials development and/or production with such countries. The residual question is whether such cursory adaptation, even if relatively inexpensive, is really cost effective.

In contrast, the development of materials based on instructional design techniques may be affordable and efficient in Namibia, if it is designed as complementary, to rather than competing with other curriculum reform demands. Botswana is already in the process of an instructionally-design based reform of its Primary and Junior Secondary materials and an immediate or intermediate term goal may be to use these materials as a starting point for Namibian materials. The adaptation activity planned by Government is necessary and fiscal implications can be controlled if least-cost approaches are used throughout the process. One such least-cost alternative is not to duplicate all the basic research costs already invested by Botswana in the materials development process.

Nonformal Education. The Government's proposal for development of income generation skills through NFE activities is based upon a recognition that such skills are needed, employment in these skill areas is increasing, and such training cannot be offered in a cost effective manner for sufficient numbers of learners in formal institutions. This proposal meets a real need and does so in a potentially efficient manner.

The key issues to be resolved are the number of trainees, their location (probably in major towns and urban centres throughout the regions), the length and form of instruction, and the location of the organizational responsibility. Briefly, costs for Government can be constrained if instruction is made very specific and, where possible, uses equipment and instructors already available in public and private organizations. If, where appropriate, organizational responsibility can be placed with local producer associations, cooperatives, and other NGOs, there also is a greater chance for local responsiveness and participation. There is a very real opportunity here for achieving a significant gain in human resources without major budget implications. Non-government participation will be the key to a cost-effective Government program.

Small Scale Business Financing. An often overlooked area of human capital utilization is entrepreneurial skill. The provision of financial assistance to new small businesses is seen both as a means of improving economic performance by broadening access to the private sector and as a device to reduce dependence on the public sector as the employer of first resort for new graduates.

To be successful and to minimize budget demands, this program should be designed to have a self-financing component (based upon initial risks and the availability of capital funding, this component eventually could equal one- half or more of program costs). Government can assist the new business development process through management training and through research into emerging entrepreneurial opportunities.

Again, the fiscal implications of this activity await its detailed operationalization. A special benefit of this program, however, is that it has the potential to generate new Government revenue through new business successes. This, combined with the partial repayment option, makes it a fiscally attractive alternative if implemented properly.

Building of Infrastructure. The two major infrastructure concerns for Namibia are educational facilities and the organizational framework. The facilities planning by the Ministry builds on models established by the DNE. While the facilities staff has made a laudable effort to standardize facilities provision in terms of square meter allocations for students for everything from classrooms, to administrative areas, to hostel sleeping and feeding areas, the quality of these plans needs to be continually reexamined to identify cost savings and means of adaptation to local conditions and materials. The Ministry currently is undertaking a national inventory of facilities location, size, and conditions; this will provide an improved data base for future facilities decision making.

Two types of primary schools currently exist in rural areas: the brick classrooms built to the actual Government specifications (R80,000 for 2- classroom unit) and the stick-and-mud locally constructed classrooms (R700 - R1000 for 2-classroom unit). The former may be an ideal standard (although better quality control for private contractors needs to be exercised) and the latter may be an unavoidable short-term compromise; however, some intermediate cost facility should be considered to allow for more rapid access (to school and to higher levels of schooling) gains to be accomplished within projected fiscal levels. Also, a major part of new facilities construction in the next decade will take place in the least developed areas of Namibia. The effect of this on unit construction costs needs to be

estimated. The same per square meter cost values simply do not apply from region to region.

A further consideration within the facilities issue is the participation of local communities. In the past, some communities have provided labor for school construction at Government pay; other communities have donated their labor for both construction and maintenance activities. A new proposal is for Government to construct the basic foundational concrete slab and to frame out the sides and roof for new schools and for the community to complete construction using its own labor and materials. While this raises equity concerns relative to the favored treatment of those who received schools in the past, it is one alternative means of extending the impact of Government's limited capital budget; greater access equity may be seen as of more immediate importance than equality in facilities quality or cost.

The administrative reorganization and its impact were discussed in Chapter Three. It is sufficient here to note that new and better qualified personnel, whatever their effect on system efficacy, involve an immediate and continuing effect on system costs. A rationalization of central and regional organizational structures is a prerequisite for fiscal affordability.

Along with teaching personnel costs, administrative and facilities expenditures will be major growth points for the education budget. These three factors, more than any others, must be planned, implemented, and monitored with extreme care if the burden of these costs relative to their benefits is to be limited.

School Administration Restructuring. There is no more politically or educationally significant task in Namibia than the unification of the administration of schools. The combined responsibility to remove existing inequities while promoting efficient use of resources will be a major challenge; some of the details of this challenge were discussed in previous chapters. In terms of fiscal effects, the success of the educational unification has particularly dramatic implications.

A critical issue is what specific standard of education will be used as the basis for system unification. For example, one crude estimate of unification costs was made based on FY1987 data for the Representative Authorities. If the Tswana Administration per student cost of R1,648 were used for all students, the cost to Namibia in terms of new funds required would be R510 million (more than double the current Central Government expenditure). Using the White cost standard of R3,213 per student would more than double the required new funds, thus tripling the present expenditure budget.

The Government's plan is to allow the advantaged schools to maintain their current resource levels (but require that they be open to all qualified students). New funds will be targeted on the disadvantaged schools. This is a conservative strategy that involves political and social risks as well as benefits. Whatever the ultimate course of policy, however, there is a need to establish intermediate resource standards for schools; adjust them to local contexts, costs, and conditions; and estimate the fiscal requirements for achieving these standards in a fixed amount of time.

Some savings will be produced by increased efficiency if students complete a given level of education in less time. However, the freeing of teachers and facilities because of decreased repetition may be offset as drop-outs are reduced and students stay in school longer to achieve higher levels of education. Also, the savings will not occur at the same locations or educational levels as the new demand. Finally, increased effectiveness in schooling may pull in those who would, in the past, not have attended school at all (or only briefly), again increasing demand for teachers, materials, and facilities. Policy makers must distinguish between those reforms that reduce the budget and those that increase the efficiency with which the budget is used.

The gains from efficiency in the primary school may help offset the cost of educating the larger cohorts of the future. This will depend on where resources become available relative to the location of population increases (for which the rate varies dramatically from region to region).

SUMMARY ISSUES

The concern with educational costs and fiscal capacity leads to six major areas of policy consideration. *First*, the MOE needs to formulate its budget so that unit costs can be calculated for each major level and type of education by region. This will require a change from the present structure that emphasizes organizational divisions and functional classifications to a new one that allows for policy budget estimates to be generated. While certain costs will be easy to allocate by level, type and region, other cost forms (such as general administration) will have to be allocated on a per pupil or other weighted basis. Current plans of the Ministry will allow for the creation of a financial data base, beginning in 1991, that will allow for unit cost calculations.

Second, there is a need to use the new budget information, in concert with an expanded estimation of other costs, to engage in a systematic evaluation of the cost implications of policy alternatives. Wherever this function is located in the Ministry, whether in NIED or in a "Policy Analysis Unit" attached directly to support the Minister's office, a significant training requirement will exist.

Third, special cost analyses are required soon of the cost savings from anticipated efficiency gains in the Namibian school system. These will be required to allow plans to estimate the net budget effect of the reforms.

Fourth, the MOE needs to express explicit criteria for the allocation of funds to regions. Making these criteria explicit will improve policy debate, reduce political pressures, and allow regional plans to anticipate the future flow of funds.

Fifth, these budget and cost data improvements must be paralleled by better data on the general population and on school participation. A serious weakness in any of these data sets will constrain the Ministry's ability for planning and for the estimation of policy benefits and costs.

And *sixth*, the budget gap for the Ministry needs to be closed. This requires the Ministry to exercise self discipline in its budget requests and the MOF to mobilize internal

and external sources of financing to see that education receives its fair share of Government and donor funds.

All of these policy considerations, if put into effect, will increase the efficiency of Government's financing of education, enhance planning, promote equity, and provide, for the first time, a means to estimate reliably the fiscal capacity of the Government relative to the evolving requirements of the education system.

CHAPTER EIGHT

NON-GOVERNMENTAL SUPPORT FOR EDUCATION

To help reform and build its education system, Namibia must develop non-governmental partnerships, both internally and externally. Namibia's public sector lacks both the resources and skills to meet this challenge alone. In his introduction to the May 1990 donor pledging conference, President Sam Nujoma confirmed aims to develop an "economic system based on the principles of a mixed economy and social responsibility," and noted that "international support will lay the foundation for more balanced and equitable growth and development...." Echoing this spirit, the Ministry of Education reports in its November 1990 Education Reform Directive that it has been "busy establishing a network of collaboration nationally and internationally. As a result of this, international inputs and private domestic resources are being galvanized to augment the public resources to foster the reform process."

There are key roles for non-governmental organizations (NGOs) to play in support of education in Namibia:

* NGOs can provide alternate models of school organization from which Government can borrow to improve formal education.
* NGOs are able to form partnerships with Government for the mobilization of new resources for such educational requirements as textbooks and school construction.
* NGOs can provide services that Government cannot assume well or fully. For example, NGOs can help meet the demand for adult literacy, nonformal education and skills training and they can adapt their programs more easily to specific needs of target populations.
* NGOs can serve as catalysts for community self-determination and self-help.
* NGOs can provide a voice and/or lobby through which disadvantaged groups can make their needs better known to those who have the means to help them.

THE CONTEXT FOR NGO COOPERATION

There are four major categories of NGOs in Namibia:

* **Private Voluntary Organizations (PVOs).** This includes both program sponsors and funding organizations such as the Council of Churches in Namibia (CCN) as well as relevant professional organizations and associations such as the Namibia National Teachers' Union (NANTU). Most of these organizations rely at least partly on external funds, including church groups and international NGOs as well as bilateral funders, primarily Scandinavian. As yet, few of the international NGOs/PVOs run programs directly in Namibia or with local counterpart PVOs.
* **Communities.** Most communities have some form of education committee involving parents of children, as well as all other individuals concerned with education and training. The People's Primary School in Katatura is an excellent example of community initiative to establish a model school.

* **The Private Sector.** Two organizations which stand out are the Rossing Foundation and the CDM corporation. The Rossing Foundation plays a prominent role in adult and nonformal education, with funding from the Rossing uranium corporation. The CDM corporation (diamond mining) funds a number of schools and other education programs under its social responsibility program. CDM has pledged at least R5 million toward the establishment of the NIED.

* **Donors.** Namibia has access to a wide range of multinational and bilateral assistance organizations prepared to provide grant and loan assistance. There is a long history of support from European donors, particularly the Scandinavian countries and Germany. Namibia is now eligible for substantial support from the European Community under the Lome' agreements. One of the few major funding agencies not engaged in Namibia is the World Bank, as Namibia is not currently eligible for IDA credits.

For the discussion which follows of the attitudes and concerns of NGOs, the team relied primarily on interviews. The team is confident the concerns are keenly felt by many of the NGOs. Certainly, they were candidly and frequently expressed. It is not clear how much of the comments reflect accurately on the current government and no attempt has been made to verify the financial or other status of NGOs.

PRIVATE VOLUNTARY ORGANIZATIONS AS PARTNERS

Under apartheid, non-White Namibians relied heavily on indigenous PVOs to compensate for the low standard or absence of public education. This was particularly true in rural areas, where PVOs frequently were the sole providers of inputs such as in-service teacher training, classrooms and learning materials. Most PVOs were church-sponsored, although some, such as OXFAM, World University Service (WUS) Denmark, and the Namibian Association of Norway were secular.

Today, a primary issue with the Namibian PVOs is the concern that closer or more formal relationships with international PVOs, donor agencies, the Government, and even each other will prevent them from setting their own agendas and continuing to work with a large degree of autonomy and control over their own sources of financial support. Some PVOs fear that the international organizations which backed them from abroad during the struggle for independence will now attempt to establish a direct presence in Namibia and could come to dominate their local counterparts. At the same time, they worry that these same international PVOs may transfer their financial support away from Namibia to areas with more pressing needs, such as South Africa.

The Namibian PVOs are concerned that donor agencies may condition their financial support in ways that will restrict the PVOs' ability to respond quickly and effectively to the underprivileged they serve. Long hostile to the apartheid government in Namibia, many indigenous PVOs are used to working without government support and remain wary that the newly formed Government will try to centralize and control their programs. Thus, they have responded with caution to recent MOE initiatives to meet with them and to coordinate among themselves. Given the private sector's close alliance with government prior to Independence, PVOs also are hesitant to join forces with it. Accustomed to working independently of each other, some tend to see others as competitors for scarce resources, rather than as allies for reform.

In addition, many of these PVOs are experiencing difficulties with their internal management. During the struggle for independence, freedom from monitoring and evaluation allowed the leadership of some PVOs to become autocratic. Others fell into the habit of receiving support without having to account for its use. Some of these PVOs lack the efficiency, transparency and accountability which make for productive partnerships.

COMMUNITIES AS PARTNERS

Community self-reliance and creativity are a valuable foundation for future education development. However, although used to collaboration with PVOs, communities still expect directive behavior from government. Government is looking for ways to encourage communities to help provide for material inputs, such as the construction of schools and purchase of uniforms and learning materials, but leaves them without an explicit say in substantive areas, such as the shaping of curriculum and hiring of education staff. This directive behavior from government makes communities feel incompetent and unworthy; in sum, shut out from the reform.

Communities also lack exposure to external donors and tend to expect them to do business the way the Government has in the past. Communities need convincing that both Government and donors really can and will assist them.

THE PRIVATE SECTOR AS PARTNERS

Before Independence, the private sector founded education and training institutions whose resources and skilled staff developed models which the government can now improve upon and replicate with its own and donor revenues. One initiative is the Rossing Foundation, as mentioned above. Among other activities, the Foundation supports a wide range of nonformal education activities, from training in life skills to vocational training. It is active in the support of English language programs and prepares trainers at its center in Windhoek to lead workshops at the community level for teachers and English language learners. It also provides educational aids to schools and manages several libraries. Another initiative is Concordia College, which the CDM, diamond company began. This secondary school is now run by Government as a kind of magnet school providing excellent education to the brightest students from all racial backgrounds and all parts of the country.

Thus, the private sector in Namibia already has proved itself a valuable partner for reform. Its ability to do more will depend in part on the economic prospects. This is particularly true for a company such as Rossing, which has to overcome both the lingering effects of sanctions and the soft world market for uranium.

DONORS AS PARTNERS

Prior to Independence, the Government of Namibia was without external donors. Now the nation is faced with the potential of receiving help from many donors, multilateral and bilateral. It must learn to deal with multiple bureaucracies, each with its own rules and regulations. Further, as it has not used a project approach for internal budgeting

or planning in the past, it will find it difficult to accommodate donors used to funding discrete projects and activities must guard against donor tendencies to put their own organizational agendas first.

Another constraint is that, while Namibia has a vision for how to use donor resources and nascent mechanisms for coordinating these, it has yet to establish operational procedures for working with donors. The President has created the National Planning Commission for government-wide development planning, donor coordination and debt management. The Ministry of Education has established its own parallel office to coordinate non- governmental assistance. However, these units are not yet fully operational and at present are essentially mechanisms for budget coordination and management/liaison with donors. What is lacking is a forum to facilitate a more active dialogue. The GRN now needs to institutionalize an effective consultative group or roundtable to coordinate future assistance to education within an agreed upon framework for education reforms. Preferably, the Government would chair such a coordination effort.

To begin this process, the National Planning Commission on December 11, 1990, convened an informal meeting for donors and non-governmental organizations to share their current and planned education and training programs with the Ministries of Education, Public Works, and Finance. Thirteen donors and non-governmental organizations were in attendance.

The meeting opened with the National Planning Commission chairperson emphasizing the value of coordinated development. The Minister of Education provided an overview of the problems which characterize Namibian education today: over-centralization of administration, unresponsiveness to national and community needs, and a lack of innovation and funding. He stressed the challenge of decentralizing the system for the sake of efficiency and relevancy, and at the same time maintaining system integrity; he stressed that the Ministry's job is to deliver high quality, relevant education, and not bureaucracy. He then spoke to issues at various levels of the system: limited access and low completion at the primary level, and limited access and irrelevancy of curriculum at the secondary levels.

Each participating group summarized its program. SIDA, the EEC, Finland and the U.S. are seeking ways to provide budgetary support for sector reform. UNDP and Unicef are focussing on addressing specific problems, such as the problem of unqualified teachers. Norway and Denmark are supporting a range of schools and are involved with developing science and math curricula. Most, including India, are offering scholarships for study abroad. The Scandinavian countries are sponsoring SWAPO schools outside of Namibia, as well as various community run schools in the country. The British Council/ODA, SIDA, and the EEC are providing technical assistance and workshops to strengthen central analysis, planning and management. Non-governmental organizations, such as the Council of Churches in Namibia and the Rossing Foundation, reviewed their work at the regional level on in-service pedagogical, management, and English language training for education staff and other interested adults. CDM reported on its social responsibility program and its support for Concordia College and other schools. As Namibia is not eligible for IDA credits, the World Bank was not in attendance.

In general, there appeared to be a substantial and varied donor commitment to participate in the reforms. Perhaps the most common concern was for more guidance on priorities and needs for the next few years.

The Minister requested indications of interest in supporting the National Institute for Education Development (NIED), the intended "nerve center" of Namibia's education reform. The U.S. stated its general interest, but clarified that it was too soon to identify what dimensions it would choose to strengthen. SIDA said it expected to provide budgetary support for aspects the Ministry deemed important. Unicef voiced an interest in providing technical assistance to help with institute design. The British Council/ODA expressed intentions to assist with both short and long term technical assistance as well as education software and materials. Others present said they would be ready to respond once they had a clearer picture of NIED's role.

Other issues discussed included the efficacy and sustainability of the UNDP/UNICEF/UNDP in-service training scheme. SIDA suggested the possibility of providing budgetary support to the Ministry to sponsor non-governmental organizations to carry out teacher training on a more modest, community based scale. The Minister raised the question of donors duplicating efforts to sponsor certain primary schools around the country. While these schools needed to operate in opposition to the government prior to independence, this is no longer necessary. Some schools are perhaps receiving more than their due share of attention.

This first informal gathering of donors and NGOs to coordinate efforts in the education sector marked an auspicious beginning for future collaboration. The National Planning Commission proposed that there be quarterly meetings in the future, with the next one suggested for late March, prior to the beginning of the fiscal year. The forum appears to have helped to allay NGO concerns over becoming partners without voices, and donor qualms that they would be working on education in isolation. Indeed, it appears that Namibia has made an excellent beginning to establishing a constructive process for coordinating assistance to the education sector.

THE ROLE OF NGOs IN EDUCATIONAL REFORM

Central-Level Support. The Government has established offices to plan and coordinate the education reform. Help with identifying policies conducive to educational quality, equity and efficiency is needed. Once these policies are established, the Government requires assistance with setting up systems and developing institutional capacity for implementing, evaluating, and adjusting reform. To date, most discussion of planning and coordination units has been with respect to the formal school systems and to the allocation of public budgets and external assistance to the public budgets. More attention to coordination of NGO-GRN activities appears to be needed, as well as to coordination of adult literacy, nonformal education and other community education.

One option for donors in this regard would be to grant funds and technical assistance for the MOE to initiate education resource centers, or "service agencies", at the regional level. These could provide the missing infrastructure, equipment and materials that PVOs and schools need to carry out relevant and high-quality education and training programs.

There is a model for such centers in Lesotho which MOE staff could visit. That center began with AID support ten years ago, and today is operating as a private organization. This form of donor contribution meets needs articulated by both the PVOs and MOE staff. It has the potential to build productive partnerships for improving basic education in Namibia.

Community-Level Support. The Minister of Education's desire for citizen participation in the education system is clearly stated in the latest policy directive "*Change with Continuity.*" This directive mentions a number of mechanisms including national and regional school boards and school committees. Donors need to support these kinds of initiatives and policies directly to give communities greater say in, and financial support for, educational reform.

Donors can underwrite policies which encourage community support of education. For example, policies are needed to ensure community participation in decisions about where to locate new schools, which schools to improve, selection of school personnel, and similar matters.

In addition, donors can condition budgetary support on the GRN steps to ensure that PVO personnel have access to such support services as in-service teacher training and management workshops for education staff. Regional MOE staff require active working relationships with local PVOs to deal effectively with parents and teachers, and to keep the MOE informed of local problems and needs. Sharing in-service training resources would solidify this partnership.

Finally, to improve education for the majority of Namibians, donors need to strengthen government systems for coordinating and supporting PVOs, potentially the most skilled reform agents at the community level. This includes helping indigenous PVOs to see the value of working with each other and with international partners, especially those coping with similar conditions in neighboring countries, such as Botswana, Lesotho, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe. It also includes training in management, as well as in the various phases of project development, to help them become more efficient and accountable partners.

CHAPTER NINE

SUMMARY FINDINGS

The task for the USAID Sector Review Team was to assess the nature and magnitude of the education reform challenge faced by Namibia. The major factors shaping and controlling the existing systems were examined, as well as the major components of the proposed reforms and the major options for helping Namibia strengthen its capacities to manage, consolidate and sustain its reforms.

ANALYSIS PERSPECTIVES

The purpose was not to be prescriptive, nor was it to evaluate the technical merits of the education choices Namibia is making. Nevertheless, the team began with some analytic perspectives which informed its work. Other guidelines and parameters for the team's analysis quickly became apparent with the initial interviews and review of the existing documents.

First, the decisions with respect to initial reforms and restructuring have already been made or soon will be. The appropriate focus for assistance at this stage is on medium-term requirements. Over the next few years, Namibia will need to consolidate its reforms and possibly to rethink and reorient some of the short-term, ad-hoc decisions. In addition to its short-term need for resources to expand and equalize education opportunities, Namibia will need to continue to strengthen its technical support capacities and will have a medium- to long-term need to encourage a climate of experimentation and innovation leading to ongoing reforms and to establish the analytic and research capacities to sustain its reforms over time.

Second, there already are many proposals for specific reforms, initiatives and projects. Most of these have merit and are likely to be supported. However, viewed individually, it is difficult to judge their relative priority for resource allocation or for work planning. The education capacities and plans need to be examined comprehensively on a sectoral basis, concentrating not just on the individual components or projects, but on the integration of the many parts and processes into an effective, affordable and sustainable instructional system consistent with the goals of independent Namibia.

Third, the appropriate starting point for analysis is the child, not the budget, nor the Ministry, nor the inherited education philosophy, nor the curriculum. A child-centered approach takes as given that most children can learn and succeed and proceeds to test all aspects of the instructional system first in terms of how they contribute to or impede the chances of children learning effectively and competing fairly and successfully for additional opportunities. Issues of how best to allocate education resources (administrative, financial, materials and facilities, teachers and other personnel) can then be assessed in terms of how allocations at the margin can improve instructional effectiveness.

SYSTEM PROBLEMS

Problems with the existing education system are easily identified. Namibia's education system is quantitatively large enough to educate most children. However, it is ineffective and produces only a relative handful of successful graduates each year. It fails almost completely to give those children who do not manage to survive and reach the upper standards any real skills for employment or functional skills for life. It expends relatively generous funding for the system as a whole, yet large parts of the education system are demonstrably short of basic materials and lack minimally adequate physical facilities. It expends extraordinary effort on examinations and certifications, yet has little data or research on instructional effectiveness. It has relatively adequate staffing levels, yet most teachers lack the desired certification and formal qualifications for their assignments. It has the technical and administrative capacities to accomplish almost any objective it sets, yet has massive inefficiencies. Clearly, the solutions to Namibia's problems do not lie simply in increasing the resources available to expand the current systems, nor even in reallocating available resources to give everybody a more equal chance within the current systems.

The main factors responsible for this pattern of systematic failure, selection bias, inequity of results and massive inefficiencies are:

* *the content biases, subject selections and hidden curricula* embedded in the formal curriculum and materials;
* *the rigidities of the administrative structure*, which is extraordinarily top-heavy relative to instructional staff, detailed in its administrative guidance and remote from most of the schools;
* *the heavy reliance on examinations on all levels*, with most geared toward selection and screening of students, rather than toward diagnostic assistance to the teacher or the student;
* *the process of certification of teachers*, reflecting both the limited facilities for the training of teachers in most of Namibia and the reliance on teaching standards and assumptions about appropriate teacher qualifications which may be unrealistic for most teachers to achieve and inappropriate for the teaching realities most teachers face.

Each of these subsystems controls the output and effectiveness of Namibia's education system and will have to be fundamentally and systematically rethought and reformed within the new education goals and objectives of independent Namibia. The team differs somewhat from other observers in the relative priority for addressing these factors.

First, most of the initiatives being discussed focus on changing curriculum at the Junior Secondary and secondary levels as a first priority. The team recognizes that changes at the upper levels are necessary to respond to short-term demands for equity of result and more open competition for opportunity in the modern sector. However, expansion at the upper levels will have very high costs and may be difficult to justify in the short-term, given the uncertainties with respect to job creation for secondary school leavers. The long-term objective both for social equity and for systems efficiency must include major reform and revitalization of basic education at the Primary level, starting with Junior Primary if

not earlier with efforts to involve communities more effectively in early childhood and other preparation for education. A sound education system cannot be built upon the systematic frustration and failure of children before they have had a chance to learn. Educators who are conditioned to expect most children to fail can hardly be expected to help most of them to succeed.

Second, the administrative structure, which is now being unified and strengthened at the regional level, may still be too top-heavy in terms of the total staffing and may still contain structural aspects, such as the heavy reliance on traditional subject advisers which could preclude much innovation and flexibility at the local level.

Third, the examinations structure needs to be rethought, not just in terms of its validity in terms of the new curriculum and national education objectives, but also in terms of how effectively it serves the needs of teachers and students for diagnostic help geared to achievement objectives.

Fourth, though it is clear a major effort will be required to raise teacher qualifications, it is not clear that credentials as such are the key to more effective instruction. There is a tendency to equate lack of teacher qualifications and credentials with a lack of teaching competencies and motivation. It is not possible to assess what the precise objectives should be for teacher training and retraining until much more development work has been done on the new instructional objectives, materials and desired classroom practices.

PRIORITIES FOR RESOURCE ALLOCATION

To address these structural problems, new resources will be needed and existing resources will have to be reallocated. However, it matters how resources are reallocated. Simply increasing the size of the current system is not likely to change the result. Unless new resources result in a more effective instructional system, they are at best being wasted and at worst are strengthening systems which are largely the problem. For example, the plans for staff increases in administrative positions and for salary increases reflecting teacher upgrading may both consume most of the available incremental funds needed for other reforms and compound the problems of rigid administration and excessive concern with teacher credentials and upgrading.

The team's sense of priorities for resource reallocation to increase instructional effectiveness includes:

- instructional materials development and production
- teacher training and support for teachers in the classroom
- facilities other than classroom instructional space
- classrooms and other instructional facilities

These areas for investing additional resources are consistent with the recommendations of most observers and with the existing plans of the Ministry. All of these need to be addressed. However, some priority should be given to instructional materials development and refinement before making commitments to large-scale teacher training or retraining. With respect to teacher training, the team would give priority to in- service

training over pre-service training and to training geared to supporting teachers in the typical classroom over training intended mainly to upgrade credentials.

Though school building and classroom improvement clearly is a priority in many areas, particularly in the rural areas of the North, the building requirements need to be kept in perspective and measured against other critical needs. Some sensible, more cost-effective, building technologies are being developed for new secondary schools and these should be encouraged. Other cost-effective approaches should be explored at the primary level. Clearly, it is almost impossible to teach in the worst of the schools, with almost no materials and with the children sitting on rocks under a tree; equally clearly, it would be possible to absorb all the funds available for other reforms in attempting to build schools at the standard of the best of the White schools. This would needlessly delay efforts to improve education for most children. Demonstrably, it is possible to educate children effectively in relatively modest physical facilities, given appropriately designed materials and with teachers trained, motivated and supported to teach in such circumstances.

Thus, along with the effort to improve classroom facilities, the team would give increased priority to other facilities at rural schools, including hostels and teacher housing, staff rooms for teacher workspace, storage facilities for materials, water and electricity for schools, and other equipment or support necessary for effective instruction. Consideration also should be given to a range of ancillary facilities, such as local teacher centers to enable teachers to work together without travelling to the regional centers and/or community education centers to enable communities (with the help of NGOs) to mount community education and adult education initiatives. These and other facilities issues need to be examined carefully before making expensive commitments and before prejudging facilities as too expensive. Further research and analysis of issues of cost-effectiveness would be very useful. For example, though some observers have argued that boarding schools are too expensive, it is possible that boarding schools, including primary schools, may be more cost-effective than generally realized, depending on whether the extra care and supervision translate into higher percentages of completers and/or fewer wasted years in repeating grades.

Namibia has relatively adequate resources with which to address its education needs, once it has worked its way through the transition phase of expensive reform, consolidation and restructuring. However, it is possible to expend very large sums on activities and functions (such as overly expensive construction, top-heavy administrative staffing, teacher upgrading not linked to curriculum reform or changes in classroom practice) which have very little impact on instructional effectiveness, and which may make the even system less efficient, equitable and sustainable. As noted above with respect to hostels, the tradeoffs and choices are not always intuitively obvious. Thus, a strong recommendation is for strengthened analytic systems at all levels, linked not so much to the current systems of examinations and other control systems, but to the efficient allocation of the resources available to implement the physical restructuring of the education systems and the development of more effective instructional systems. Efforts to strengthen systems capacities appear most needed in the following areas:

STRENGTHENING CAPACITIES

Policy Planning and Analysis. A specialized unit is needed, preferably at the staff level within the Ministry of Education, capable of modelling the medium- to long-term implications of various policy choices. This should be kept somewhat distinct from the other planning units necessary for carrying out line functions of estimating needs and managing the education systems. To make effective use of such analytic capacities, it will be necessary to consider a number of changes in budgeting and internal accounting; for example, to enable the experimental projects and other development components to be distinguished from ongoing recurrent budgets.

Management Information Systems. Better data is needed at all levels. The improvement of the demographic data which underlies education policy and planning decisions is particularly critical. The available education data collected by the Ministry are relatively good and complete. However, other types of data will need to be collected and assessed as Namibia shifts to a new administrative structure and to new education objectives. In particular, there is great need for better data at the school and classroom level to enable analysts to understand what actually accounts for differences in instructional effectiveness, achievement and persistence. This is critical information for development of a more effective instructional system.

Instructional Systems Design. This is not so much a single function or unit as it is an analytic and developmental perspective which must pervade all the other systems. It will require both better analysis in each unit and new mechanisms for educators to work together across unit boundaries to ensure complementarity of approaches within a common strategy of improving instructional effectiveness. It will require a systematic effort by education leaders at all levels to reorient the thinking from a process of managing the selection of students as they seek to survive a series of academic tests to an expectation that most children will learn and that it is the professional obligation of each educator to ensure that they do. This reorientation will take time.

Materials Development and Production. Closely linked to instructional systems design is the development of materials which support the curriculum objectives and desired classroom practices. The full range of instructional materials need to be considered, from simple found materials, available to any observant and resourceful teacher, to materials which have to be centrally produced and supplied. Electronic media and distance teaching technologies need to be considered to supplement the texts and other materials available in the typical classroom. Most importantly, Namibia needs to develop its own capacities to carry out its own development and assessment of materials in terms of its own instructional objectives. The issues of how and where it obtains the materials can then be addressed.

POLICY ISSUES

Finally, the team considered a number of policy issues which need to be given further consideration. These appear to be key choices which will determine how effectively the reforms discussed above will be carried out. The team does not have specific recommen-

dations to offer. However, the following need to be discussed in the planning and implementation of any large scale assistance effort.

* How to increase the budgetary increment available for reallocation to improve equity and efficiency. Issues for discussion would include the intensity with which the more expensive facilities are being utilized, as well as the budgetary allocations by level, by region and by function, especially for non-salary inputs.

* How to ensure that reallocation results in increased instructional effectiveness, rather than expanded administrative and control structures. Issues for discussion would include the allocation for administrative staff expansion versus teachers and for teacher salary costs versus other instructional input needs.

* How to build both relative autonomy and long-term support for high quality research, analysis and curriculum/materials development capacities. Issues for discussion would include the progress in establishing the National Institute of Education Development (NIED) and the mechanisms place to ensure that the research priorities reflect both expert judgment as to the research issues and the priorities of Namibia's education reform. Particular care should be taken to ensure that NIED is not distracted either with functions that are more appropriately handled within the line units of the Ministry or with academically interesting research and experimentation which is marginal to Namibia's education development objectives.

* How to build effective partnerships with NGOs, communities, and the private sector. Namibia has an unusual opportunity to build an education system making effective use of the full range of education partners. Because of the relative neglect of many areas and populations of Namibia, the public education system has not overextended itself into attempting to deliver all forms of education to all learners. For the same reason, Namibia has relied on NGOs to an unusual extent to provide the leadership for most adult literacy and adult education initiatives, as well as to meet the schooling needs of a number of communities. There are several local NGOs with strong staffs, leadership and credibility in disadvantaged and returnee communities. Other donors, particularly in Europe, have substantial experience in assisting such groups. There are a number of coordination and joint-funding mechanisms under discussion and the Ministry is currently reviewing its policies on the support to privately-managed schools and privately-provided school facilities. These discussions should be encouraged and supported if possible.

* How to facilitate donor coordination within a common policy framework. The Ministry of Education and the National Planning Commission have taken useful first steps to bring donors together to discuss Namibia's needs and possible responses. UNDP has also taken steps to coordinate donor initiatives, particularly with the UN agencies. Interestingly, major local NGOs and corporate sponsors of social responsibility education programs were prominent in the Ministry's coordination meetings. Though no permanent mechanism is apparent at present, there clearly is both a need for coordination and interest in doing so, both by the Government and by all donors with whom the team spoke. A strong recommendation is that these initiatives be encouraged and that the USAID program be developed within a common framework to which most other donors are committed as well as the Government of Namibia. USAID should encourage the Government to establish this framework and a coordinating forum for the discussion of assistance issues as soon as possible.

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ANNEX A

COMPARISON BETWEEN THE EXISTING AND PROPOSED ORGANIZATION AND POST ESTABLISHMENT OF THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, CULTURE, YOUTH, AND SPORT.

ANNEX A

Comparison Between the Existing and Proposed Organization and Post Establishment of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Youth, and Sport.

No.	Occupational Class	Number of Posts		Average Salary Scale	Financial Implication	
		Existing	Proposed		Existing	Proposed
1	Permanent Secretary	1	1	102,759	102,759	102,759
2	Deputy Permanent Secretary	3	2	97,145	291,429	194,286
3	Under Secretary	7	8	94,335	660,345	754,680
4	Director	25	25	80,295	2,007,375	2,007,735
5	Deputy Director	23	23	68,112	1,566,576	1,566,576
6	Chief: Education	41	41	68,112	2,792,592	2,792,592
7	Chief: Personnel Administration	1	1	68,112	68,112	68,112
8	Chief Inspector: Education	10	16	60,237	602,370	963,792
9	Chief Education Planner	7	40	60,237	421,659	2,409,480
10	Chief School Psychologist	3	7	60,237	180,711	421,659
11	Chief Subject Advisor	2	11	60,237	120,474	662,607
12	Rector TC	2	2	60,237	120,474	120,474
13	Chief: Museum Services	1	1	52,941	52,941	52,941
14	Chief: Culture	1	1	52,941	52,941	52,941
15	Chief: National Archives	1	1	52,941	52,941	52,941
16	Chief: Library Services	1	3	52,941	52,941	158,823
17	Chief: Language Services	2	2	52,941	105,882	105,882
18	Chief Accountant	1	3	52,941	52,941	158,823
19	Chief Control Officer	1	8	50,547	50,547	403,656
20	Principal School Psychologist	1	17	50,081	50,081	851,377
21	Principal Subject Adviser	20	32	50,081	1,001,620	1,602,592
22	Vice-Rector TC	2	3	50,081	100,162	150,243
23	Education Planner	37	105	50,081	1,852,997	5,158,345
24	Inspector: Education	64	91	48,185	3,083,840	4,384,835
25	Chief: Conservatoire	1	1	48,185	48,185	48,185
26	Principal (SI/PI)	216	216	48,185	10,407,960	10,407,960
27	Chief Curator	3	3	47,973	143,919	143,919
28	Chief Culture Officer	3	4	47,973	143,919	191,892
29	Chief Archivist	2	2	47,973	95,946	95,946
30	Chief Librarian	4	11	47,973	191,892	527,703
31	Chief Language Practitioner	4	4	47,973	191,892	191,892
32	Chief Liaison Officer	0	5	47,973	0	239,865
33	Head of Department TC	26	29	44,294	1,151,644	1,284,526
34	Principal (SII/PII)	602	602	44,294	26,664,988	26,664,988
35	Subject Adviser	181	330	40,622	7,352,582	13,405,260
36	School Psychologist/S	70	122	40,622	2,843,540	4,955,884

No.	Occupational Class	Number of Posts Existing	Proposed	Average Salary Scale	Financial Implication Existing	Proposed
37	Senior Lecturer	33	42	40,622	1,340,526	1,706,124
38	Principal PIII	256	256	40,622	10,399,232	10,399,232
39	Deputy Principal (S/P)	254	254	40,622	10,317,988	10,317,988
40	Personal Assistant	1	1	40,281	40,281	40,281
41	Senior Accountant/P	1	10	40,041	40,041	400,410
42	Principal PIV	99	99	36,969	3,659,931	3,659,931
43	Lecturer	52	88	36,969	1,922,388	3,253,272
44	Head of Department (S/P)	1,245	1,245	36,969	46,026,405	46,026,405
45	Snr. Asst: Boardinghouse Affairs	5	7	36,969	184,845	358,783
46	Chief Typist	1	2	35,073	35,073	70,146
47	Senior Equipment Attendant	10	10	32,024	320,240	320,240
48	Speech Therapist (S/P)	4	4	30,930	123,720	123,720
49	Occupational Therapist (S/P)	1	1	30,930	30,930	30,930
50	Phisiotherapist (S/P)	1	1	30,930	30,930	30,930
51	Asst./Culture Officer/S/P	18	20	30,566	550,188	611,320
52	Asst./Archivist/S/P	6	6	30,566	183,396	183,396
53	Asst./Librarian/S/P	32	49	30,566	978,112	1,497,734
54	Asst./Liaison Officer/S/P	0	16	30,566	0	489,056
55	Asst./Curator/S/P	20	20	30,565	611,300	611,300
56	Asst./Lang. Practitioner/S/P	17	19	28,082	477,394	533,558
57	Accountant	5	27	26,627	133,135	718,929
58	Teacher	10,655	10,655	26,553	282,922,215	282,922,215
59	Private Secretary/S	12	26	24,772	297,264	644,072
60	Museum Technician/S	6	6	24,555	147,330	147,330
61	Museum Artist/S	2	4	24,555	49,110	98,220
62	Chief Clerk	23	58	22,730	522,790	1,318,340
63	Artisan(B)/S	0	2	21,935	0	43,870
64	Senior Data Typist	0	2	21,339	0	42,678
65	Professional Nurse	1	1	19,881	19,881	19,881
66	Data Typist	1	9	19,014	19,014	171,126
67	Language Assistant	0	6	17,406	0	104,436
68	Senior Typist	7	10	16,437	115,059	164,370
69	Control Registry Clerk	1	1	16,437	16,437	16,437
70	Asst. Accountant/S	13	116	13,905	180,765	1,612,980
71	Chief Stores Officer	7	7	13,883	97,181	1 97,181
72	Chief Lithographic Operator	0	1	13,883	0	13,883
73	Chief Boardinghouse Matron	179	179	13,883	2,485,057	2,485,057

No.	Occupational Class	Number of Posts Existing	Number of Posts Proposed	Average Salary Scale	Financial Implication Existing	Financial Implication Proposed
74	Chief Caretaker	1	1	13,882	13,882	13,882
75	Clerk	70	188	13,235	926,450	2,488,180
76	Library Assistant/S	57	74	13,235	754,395	979,390
77	Asst./School Secretary/S	670	670	12,627	8,460,090	8,460,090
78	Clerical Assistant/S/P	33	43	12,627	416,691	542,961
79	Farm Foreman/S/P	1	1	12,627	12,627	12,627
80	Chief Registry Clerk	6	8	11,340	68,040	90,720
81	Chief Record Clerk	3	3	11,340	34,020	34,020
82	Technical Assistant/S/P	6	11	11,169	67,014	122,859
83	Asst. Typist/Typist	30	51	11,169	335,070	569,619
84	Stores Officer/S	13	27	10,782	140,166	291,114
85	Driver/S	17	48	10,782	183,294	517,536
86	Lithographic Operator/S	2	23	9,410	18,820	216,430
87	Caretaker/S	89	95	9,410	837,490	893,950
88	Handyman/S	2	7	9,410	18,820	65,870
89	Operator Driver/S	11	2	9,410	103,510	18,820
90	Boardinghouse Matron/S	827	866	9,005	7,447,135	7,798,330
91	Darkroom Assistant/S	0	1	9,004	0	9,004
92	Registry Clerk	12	18	7,974	95,688	143,532
93	Record Clerk	41	64	7,974	326,934	510,336
94	Cook/S	5	5	7,569	37,845	37,845
95	Messenger	29	48	5,886	170,694	282,528
96	Implement Operator	3	3	5,886	17,658	17,658
97	Senior Workhand	0	2	5,886	0	11,772
98	Equipment Attendant	4	8	4,764	19,056	38,112
99	Workhand	7	7	4,764	33,348	33,348
100	Watchman	18	42	4,764	85,752	200,088
101	Senior Institution Worker	133	133	4,764	633,612	633,612
102	Leader Cleaner	9	9	4,764	42,876	42,876
103	Leader Labourer	7	10	4,764	33,348	47,640
104	Institution Worker	3,042	3,294	3,771	11,471,382	12,421,674
105	Cleaner	1,280	1,284	3,771	4,826,880	4,841,964
106	Labourer	106	204	3,771	399,726	769,284
		20,871	22, 281		466,991,558	497,699,241
					Difference	30,707,683

ANNEX B

NGOs IN INDEPENDENT NAMIBIA

Three recent documents explore the role of Namibian non-governmental organizations in independent Namibia in greater depth than is possible here. In 1989, UNDP commissioned an inventory of indigenous NGOs and made suggestions to the foreign NGO and donor community, UNDP and the Namibian Government regarding interacting with Namibian NGOs. The second report is the March 1990 study by Private Agencies Collaborating Together (PACT) of Windhoek-based NGOs. This report says little about education NGOs. A third effort is the July 1990 symposium in Amherst, Massachusetts, organized by Oxfam America and the University of Massachusetts. A number of high level Namibians participated in the three-day meeting. The report, entitled "Strategies for Supporting Development in Namibia," contains a series of valuable discussions on alternative non-governmental strategies, highlights Namibian NGO concerns regarding foreign NGOs and foreign assistance agencies, and suggests a number of useful "Ideas for Action." These three reports should be referred to for a fuller discussion of non- governmental organizations in Namibia.

DESCRIPTION OF NAMIBIAN NGO ACTIVITIES IN EDUCATION

Rossing Foundation. Established in 1978 by Rossing Uranium Ltd., the Foundation now runs eleven adult training centers, including three on farms with boarding facilities. Training is offered in four areas: agricultural research development, practical skills training, English language training and teacher training. The Foundation also established and manages two libraries in Windhoek, administers the Atlantic Scholarship scheme, and contributes educational aid to schools of R38,000 per annum. The operating budget of the Foundation is approximately R6. million per annum.

The teacher training effort is a small part of Rossing's larger program and includes a range of activities. In Katutura, Rossing assists 150 junior primary teachers by providing teacher support with English language, pedagogy, and materials.

The largest teacher support ongoing activity is the weekend English-medium subject training workshop run with CCN in rural areas under the auspices of the Education Forum. In 1990, 1,246 teachers participated in the program. These workshops are evaluated by the individuals regarding content and need fulfillment, but there has not been an attempt to assess impact on the job. The Ministry would like to offer a certificate for English competency for teachers. Teachers would like to be tested and if the Government recognizes a certificate, Rossing would support testing. In the meantime, the Foundation is very careful to call their efforts support and not upgrading.

Rossing has also held workshops on school management for principals and subject teachers on such basics as how to run a meeting, how to pass on information, how to help change attitudes and discussions of Ministry of Education documents. The Foundation

sees the need for more management workshops and has been speaking with an external funding agency about establishing such a program. The funding agency requires Ministry approval to channel the funds to an NGO. The MOE has informally given this approval as it does not feel ready to tackle this area. Rossing will run the project and expects to maintain enough independence so that if a disagreement with the government occurs, the project will still go forward.

Rossing Foundation appears to enjoy an excellent relationship with the Ministry of Education. In the early days of the teacher training effort, there was difficulty obtaining access to school buildings to run workshops. The Minister has written a letter requesting local education people to assist Rossing's and CCN's efforts. Rossing hosted the September 15 government colloquium on the curriculum reform process, participated in the October 20 government workshop on draft curriculum proposals for the Junior Secondary schools, serves on the Implementation Task Force, and is organizing a workshop for Principals in late January about the new curriculum.

The Principal of Rossing, Len le Roux, has taken the lead among NGOs on a number of education fronts, including serving as Chair for the newly organized NGO Coordinating Committee for Teaching Support (see below). The Rossing Foundation facilities in Khomasdal are used by some 80 organizations throughout the year. Office space is provided to World Teach.

Rossing hopes to develop 12 small satellite centers for English language teacher training courses. A major constraint is funding. The Foundation is looking for a partnership. It has considerable expertise, including teachers trained by Rossing, who now serve as part of a training team, thereby ensuring that school experience is part of the workshops they run. They feel they could easily expand their efforts as the planning capacity is there (in the Windhoek office) and other NGOs are willing to help. The Foundation could take on contracts.

Council of Churches of Namibia. The Council was established in 1978 as the Christian Center to work towards nationalism through an interdenominational effort. Members include the Anglican, Roman Catholic, Evangelical Lutheran, and African Episcopal Methodist, Congregational, and Methodist churches. With a full-time staff of 300, CCN provides training opportunities for many of its staff.

The Education Program includes three units: English Language, Nonformal Education, and Formal Education. The English Language Unit (ELU) was established in 1978 and trains adult (15 years +) in five levels of proficiency. Recently, CCN has offered weekend workshops for teachers with the Rossing Foundation under the Education Forum umbrella. From 1991, these teachers will have access to the Teacher Resource Center which is to be established by the Namibia Association of Norway. Teachers will be exposed to new materials as well as to the methodology of teaching adults as opposed to children. The Resource Center will also support teachers in schools to upgrade their language skills. As of June 1990, there were 90 study centers with almost 2,000 learners. There has been a significant increase in the demand for ELU classes.

The CCN Nonformal Education Unit was established in 1978 and serves school leavers and adults by providing studying opportunities for external candidates to Std. 8 and Std. 10 exams. The Katutura Center offers the BOLESWA syllabus and examinations through the Swaziland Examinations Council for junior certificate and Cambridge University for "O" level. The program in Caprivi offered Mathematics before the subject was allowed in Black schools, thus posing a threat to the education authority.

Nonformal Education Centers operate all over the country. Teaching/tutoring staff are drawn from subject teachers in the area. In June 1990, there were 16 centers with 1,678 students and 56 part-time teachers. Teachers are paid R10/hour.

There are more females than males in the classes (as high as 87% in one center). Students come only for the subjects they want. Fees are R12 for the urban centers, and R10 for the rural ones. CCN buys textbooks. Those who can afford them buy the books from the CCN. Those who cannot, borrow the textbooks. Performance is said to be fairly good. A CCN center in Caprivi had a student achieving 100% in the Std. 8 biology exam and another as the top candidate in the country in English language. Caprivi students thus are outperforming those of other regions. An unmet demand exists in rural areas.

The Formal Education Unit oversees community schools and scholarships. There are four or five schools in the South built by communities, using the Botswana/Swaziland/Lesotho syllabus and teaching in English. CCN helps out financially and through the Joined Management Board of Community Schools is helping to negotiate government assistance to these schools. The schools have under-qualified teachers and are of variable quality, but the communities wish to maintain their autonomy. Since 1982, CCN has coordinated a scholarship program, mostly for study in RSA. (Training in other countries such as Zimbabwe was only available to SWAPO members.) In 1990, CCN is administering scholarships to 104 continuing students and 31 new ones and has recommended candidates for another ten overseas scholarships. For the 31 openings, there were 250 applicants of which 100 qualified. CCN is looking for more scholarships (full time, part time and short term). With Independence, organizations want to work with the government but government structures are not yet in place and there is concern that funding is being lost.

Namibia National Teachers' Union (NANTU). Teachers from most parts of the country, recognizing that education is inextricably bound to economic and political processes within society, came together in 1988 to form a coordinating committee to inform and propagate the idea of one powerful national teachers' organization for Namibia. In March 1989, NANTU was launched.

The basic aims and objectives of Namibia are to unite all the teachers of Namibia into a non-racial national teachers' organization that will seek to channel all the democratic demands of teachers, to raise critical consciousness among the teachers and implement, as a matter of urgency, a program of political and professional education of teachers to play an effective role within the community.

NANTU is concerned not only with the content of the syllabi and textbooks, but also with the methodology of democratic classroom practice as well as creative and alternative resources for classroom use where possible.

It also provides a forum for debate with regard to the role of education within the broader context of Namibian society. NANTU is currently running a two-week course for 30 English language teachers, with assistance from the Canadian Federation of Teachers. Training aims to help them to serve as English language facilitators for other teachers in their regions.

Namibia Primary Teacher's Project. Established to help the People's Primary School (PPS) in Katatura run in-service classes for teachers, the NPTP has expanded and now offers support more broadly. The teacher in- service classes cover English, math, science, teaching skills, classroom methodology as well as discussions of broader issues such as pupil discipline and nation building through education. The program also offers free courses for primary teachers for English improvement, a resource center in Windhoek, classroom based learning materials, and the newsletter "Primary Links".

Namibia Literacy Program. Originally started by churches, the Namibia Literacy Program (NLP) broke its South African links in 1984 and has worked independently since. In 1990, there was some integration with the former SWAPO Literacy Program in Exile now called the Continuation of Literacy Work Among Returnees. This program is to be phased out by January 1991 and while NLP has been taking in returnees, it is not clear what will happen to the materials and staff of the Continuation of Literacy Work. The Ministry of Education is making plans for a mass literacy campaign and may use those resources. NLP has not met with the Ministry to discuss plans and coordination of effort.

The NLP runs workshops to train literacy teachers ("group leaders"), stressing adult psychology as opposed to child psychology. Training runs between three and eight weeks. Literacy group leaders are paid on a part time basis (R150/month for teaching one class and R205/month for two classes) and many are working other jobs. Group leaders teach in their on areas and recruit learners in the village. While there appears to be a big demand for the classes, recruitment of group leaders is a problem.

Classes run three times per week throughout the year. There are no fees for learners. Literacy training is offered in seven languages, including English, although only about 10 of the 250 groups are using English. There has been a conscious decision not to duplicate the work of CCN in English language training.

There is an effort to tailor the content to the needs of the learner. For example, a mechanic may request literacy training in auto mechanics and the regional organizer will find a literate mechanic to assist with the lessons. In 1981 they tried to design primers without any survey of the needs of the audience.

A literacy group or center has 15-20 people. Nationally, participants and literacy group leaders tend to be women (75%). Ages vary from 20 - 60 years. The greater the distance from an urban area, the older the women. The largest constituency is in the north with 140 groups in Owambo, 70 in Kavongo and 20 in Caprivi. The rest of the country has

20 centers (total 250 nationally). The work in the north-west (Khorixas) came to a standstill due to the regional organizer's outspoken support for SWAPO.

A significant unmet demand is said to exist. Hopes for the future include revising the materials based on a needs assessment, expanding field staff, providing transport for field staff, and training staff in fund raising techniques. Limited assistance has been received from Oxfam, Miserior, World University Services and local businesses and church groups. It is difficult for communities to provide financial assistance. NLP is formally registered as a company and members of its board do not have backgrounds in literacy. This has caused problems as board members have not always accepted the recommendation of the field people.

COORDINATING BODIES FOR NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS

Namibian Association for Literacy and Adult Education (NALAE). The NALAE is an association of individuals and institutions involved in literacy work in Namibia and provides a link with regional and international literacy organizations. It was launched by the Minister of Education, Culture, Youth and Sport, Nahas Angula, on August 4, 1990, at a function held at the Rossing Foundation, Khomasdal.

Although in its infancy, the Association has acted as a local partner for a number of important events. Firstly, World University Services (International) held a conference on literacy and mass-based organizations in Windhoek. Secondly, the International Council for Adult Education (ICAE) visited Namibia with an international delegation to convene a consultation on literacy.

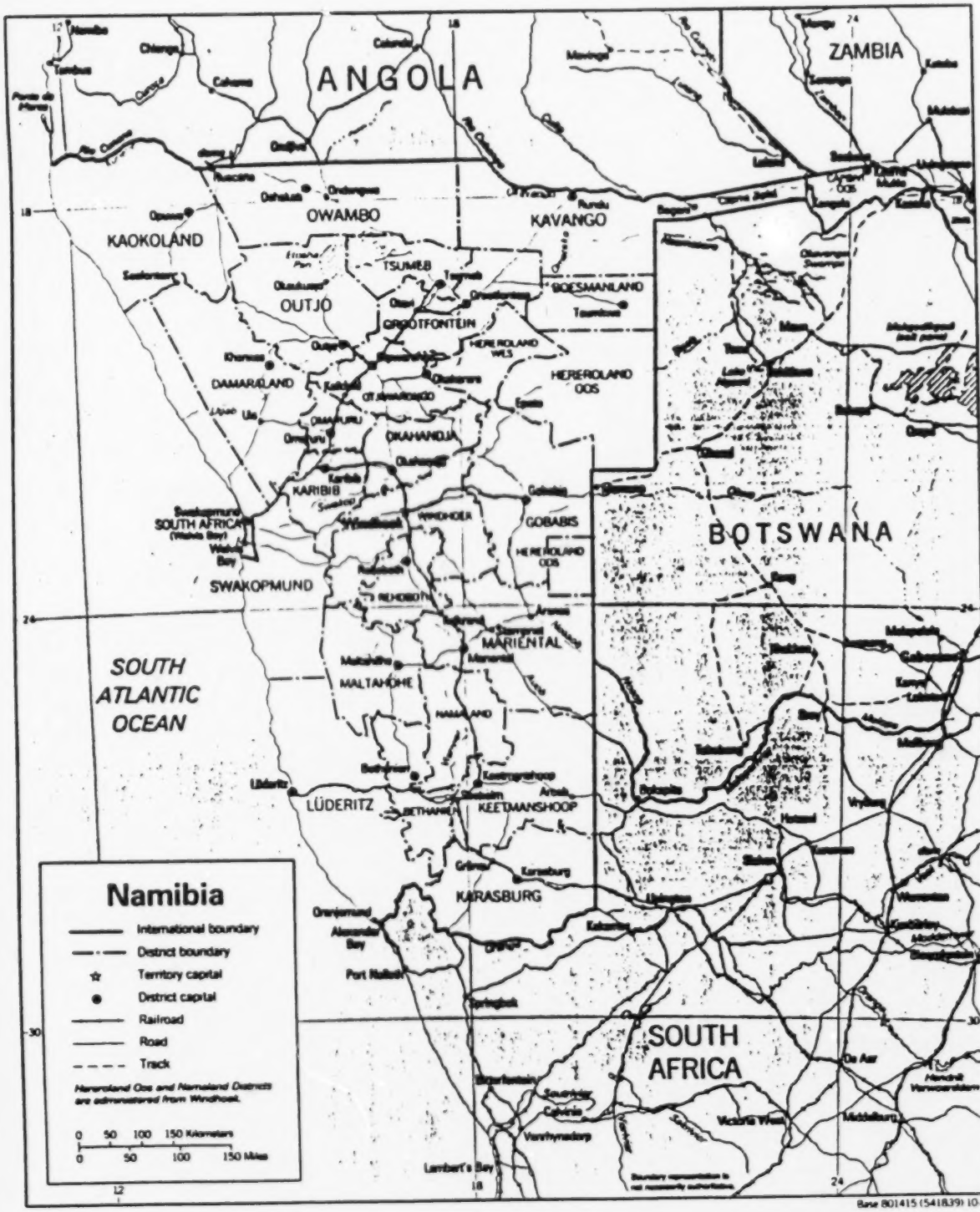
NALAE also sent delegations to two conferences this year. Four representatives attended the Second General Assembly of the African Association for Literacy and Adult Eduction in Mauritius (Len Le Roux, Clara Bohitile, Kanner Kalimba and Beans Ngatjizeko) where they presented a workshop on literacy and the liberation struggle. Ray Auala attended a conference hosted by Unesco in Hamburg, Germany on post-literacy. A number of projects have been identified for 1991, and NALAE intends to be active in the field of literacy. This association will not only act as a network, but will initiate projects of its own.

Education Forum. This is a group of organizations active in education. It coordinates efforts and provides resource people. It was started by CCN with Oxfam Canada assistance. Members include CCN, Otto Benecke Foundation's Vocational Training Center, Namibian National Students' Organization (NANSO), the Academy, The University Center for Study of Namibia (TUCSIN), headmasters, inspectorate from the old Rehoboth Administration, and Rossing Foundation. The CCN plays an administrative/coordinating role for the Forum. The most pressing need identified by the group was teacher upgrading and consequently this has been the group's major focus. The group runs weekend English medium workshops for teachers (described above) and has run a Principals Workshop for 100 participants in February 1990 and a series of Training of Trainers Workshops to training teachers to be facilitators. The Education Forum is now a member of the NGO Coordinating Committee for Teacher Support.

NGO Coordinating Committee for Teacher Support. This is a recently- formed group committed to supporting teachers in Grades 1–12 by coordinating activities outside the government. The Committee will follow-up NANTU's teacher training efforts in the North and South, the ongoing Rossing/CCN Education Forum efforts, and other activities. They are concentrating first on Junior Secondary and not working in Owambo and Kavango because they expect bilaterals will be involved there. There is a concern that upgrading efforts be sustained and more than just a once off effort of two week. This group will liaise with the Ministry.

The chair of the group is Len Le Roux. Members include the:

Rossing Foundation
Council of Churches in Namibia
Namibia Primary Teacher's Program
Namibia Development Trust
Catholic Church
Namibia Mathematics Institute
Namibia National Teachers' Union
Namibia Project (Bremen)
World Teach
World University Services Denmark (WUSD)
World University Services Canada(WUSC)



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